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ABSTRACT

This report compares California with other states in how the problem of low achievement by minority students is being confronted. The severity of the achievement gap is assessed, as well as the steps being taken to close the gap. The topics considered are: (1) the changing demographic profile of racial and ethnic minorities in California; graduation rates; correlates of the achievement gap such as unemployment, juvenile delinquency, and criminality; and the moral and practical needs for change; (2) educational disadvantages of ethnic and racial minority students (education level of parents of SAT examinees; family income; English deficiency; subjects studied in high school; proportion of examinees in a college preparatory program; and the deleterious effects of tracking); (3) minority representation and scoring on college entrance examinations (test scores by race and ethnicity; effects of increased minority representation among examinees; encouraging minority students to take college entrance tests); (4) the establishment of equitable college admissions requirements, with emphasis on California; (5) data from community colleges, four year colleges, graduate schools, and professional schools in California on minority representation and success; and (6) selected efforts to increase minority representation in California and other states. On many measures of progress toward equal representation among achievers, California was one of the best among comparable states. Black Californians are fairly well represented in colleges, but Hispanics are severely underrepresented at all levels of postsecondary education. It is noted that the numbers of minority students aspiring to higher education are increasing and that college admission test scores are on the rise for minority groups. Further, many groups, universities, and testing organizations are attempting to improve the situation. (CG)

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EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITY FOR UNDERREPRESENTED MINORITY STUDENTS
IN CALIFORNIA: COMPARISONS WITH OTHER STATES

Michael E. Martinez
The Achievement Council
September, 1985

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EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITY FOR UNDERREPRESENTED MINORITY STUDENTS
IN CALIFORNIA: COMPARISONS WITH OTHER STATES

CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

California has a problem called the achievement gap. The achievement gap is the ongoing disparity between the educational achievement of White and Asian students and the achievement of Blacks, Hispanics, American Indians, and students from other minority groups (Brown and Haycock, 1984). The purpose of this report is to compare California with other states in how the problem of low achievement by minority students is being confronted. In this report, the severity of the achievement gap is assessed, as well as the steps being taken to close the gap.

In discussions of the achievement gap, a distinction is commonly made between minority groups and underrepresented minority groups. In California, and in the rest of the United States, Blacks and Mexican-Americans are the largest populations that, as a group, lag behind Whites and Asians in educational achievement. They are considered underrepresented among educational achievers. Although they are much fewer, American Indians are most under-represented among high educational achievers in California and the nation.

Figure 1 indicates that the achievement gap is a problem of the entire nation. Between 1960 and 1983, the median number of years of school completed was consistently higher for Whites. In a sense, the graph is encouraging because all groups are getting more years of schooling and differences in the amount of schooling between groups are shrinking.

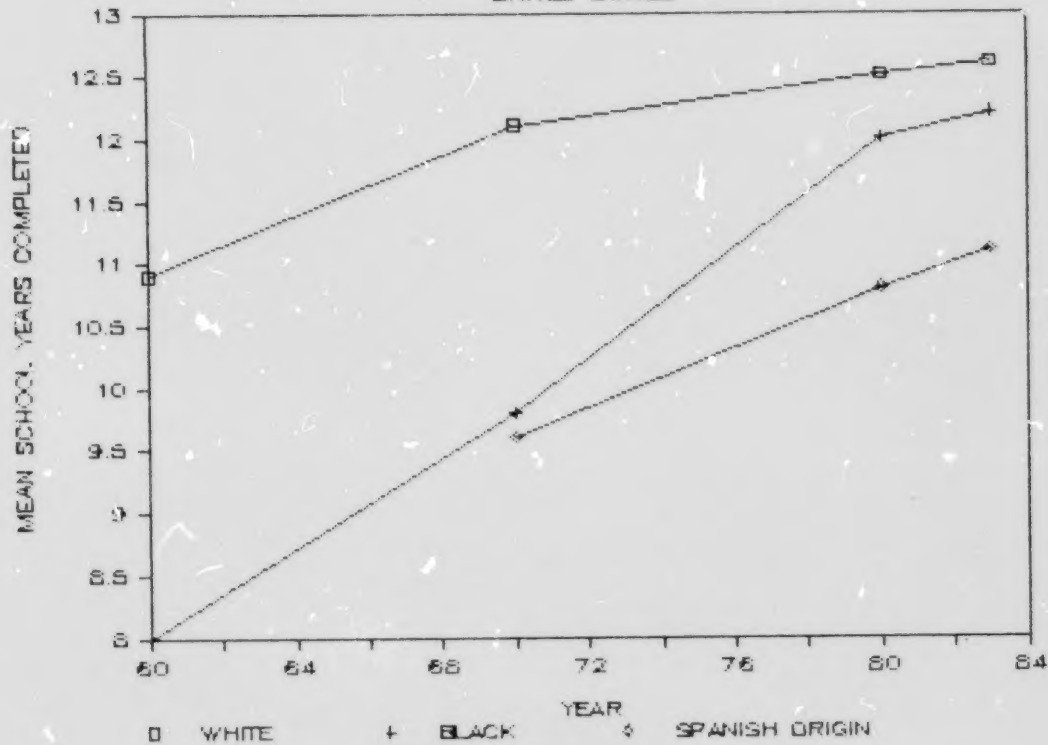
Unfortunately, when attention is focused on the population that completed college, a different story emerges. All racial-ethnic groups made gains in the percentage who complete four or more years of college. But the percentage of Whites who complete college is still double the percentage of Blacks and two and one half times the percentage of Hispanics (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1985). All racial and ethnic groups are achieving more, but the achievement gap remains (Figure 2).

Part of the explanation for the persistence of the achievement gap is that Blacks and Hispanics are much more likely than Whites to drop out of college before a baccalaureate degree is completed. Figure 3 shows that, in 1980, Blacks and Hispanics were more likely than Whites to complete between one and three years of college. In fact, more Blacks and Hispanics had dropped out of college than had completed it. The opposite is true for Whites. In 1980, 19.5% of the White population had completed at least four years of college, and only 15.9% had completed between one and three years. Thus, the problem of disparate attainment is partially a problem of attrition. In Chapter III are data that indicate that financial burdens are a primary cause of the dropout phenomenon among minorities.

Figure 1.

THE ACHIEVEMENT GAP

UNITED STATES



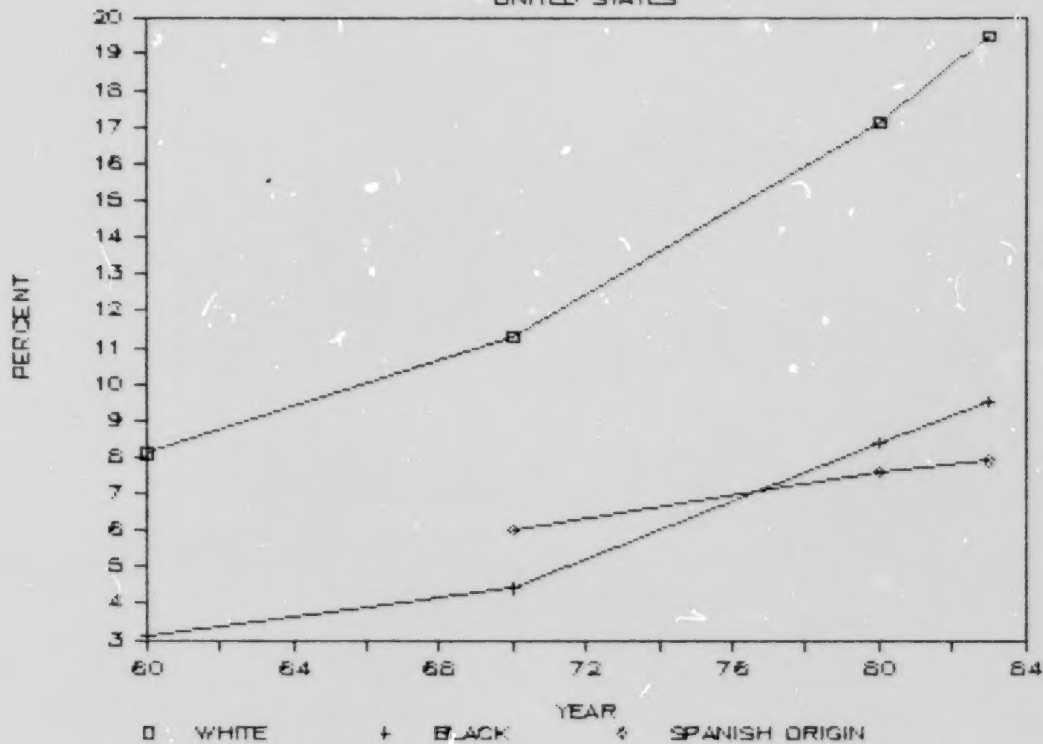
	MEAN SCHOOL YEARS COMPLETED	WHITE	BLACK	SPANISH ORIGIN
60		10.9	8	
70		12.1	9.8	9.6
80		12.5	12	10.8
83		12.6	12.2	11.1

SOURCE: U.S. DEPT. OF COMMERCE, BUREAU OF THE CENSUS. STATISTICAL ABSTRACT OF THE UNITED STATES, 1985.

Figure 2.

COLLEGE GRADUATES

UNITED STATES



PERCENT COLLEGE GRADUATES

WHITE BLACK SPANISH ORIGIN

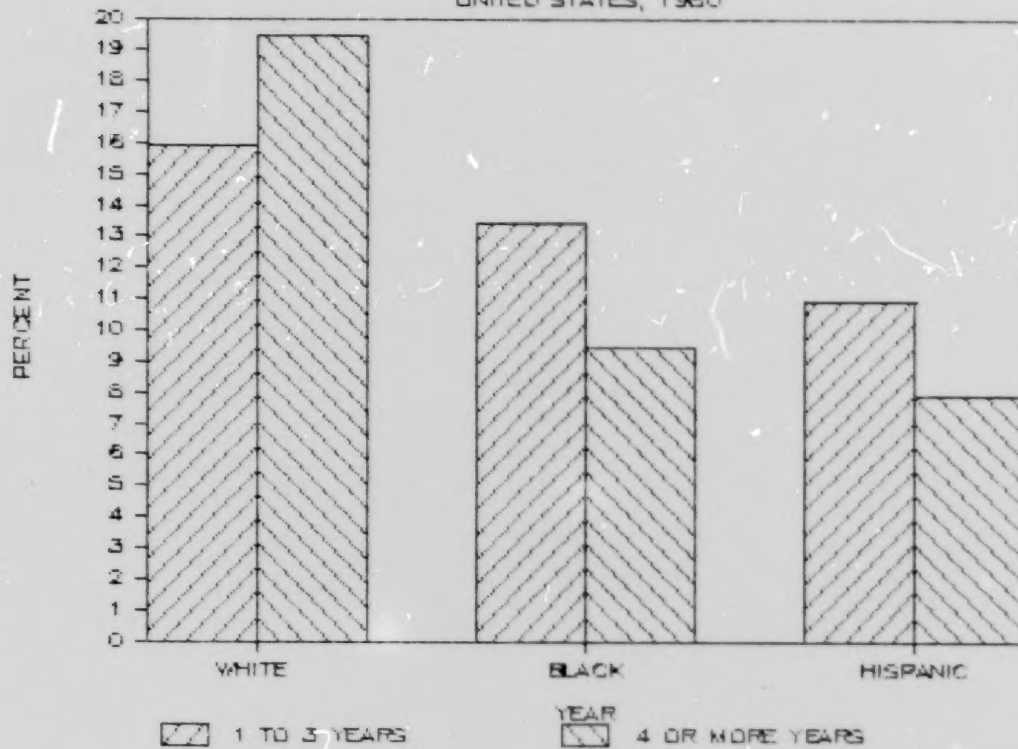
60	8.1	3.1	
70	11.3	4.4	6
80	17.1	8.4	7.6
83	19.5	9.5	7.9

SOURCE: U.S. DEPT. OF COMMERCE, BUREAU OF THE CENSUS. STATISTICAL ABSTRACT OF THE UNITED STATES, 1985.

Figure 3.

YEARS OF COLLEGE COMPLETED

UNITED STATES, 1980



YEARS OF COLLEGE

	1-3 YRS	4 YRS OR MORE
WHITE	15.9	19.5
BLACK	13.4	9.5
HISPANIC	10.9	7.9

SOURCE: U.S. DEPT. OF COMMERCE, BUREAU OF THE CENSUS. STATISTICAL ABSTRACT OF THE UNITED STATES, 1985.

But educational disadvantage becomes entrenched far before college. During the first five to six years of life, many children become so impoverished intellectually and, perhaps, nutritionally, that they are likely to be unsuccessful in school. During the school years, many of these children find themselves labeled as failures by the school system and they learn to define themselves in that way. If they begin to act like failures, they may find that behaviors such as absenteeism, disruption, and tardiness are tolerated by teachers. Later, however, these habits will become handicaps to holding a job.

Besides developing poor work habits, many young people enter the job market functionally illiterate. Every year, between 500,000 and 1,000,000 young people enter the labor market without the work habits or the literacy to make themselves employable in any industry. These large numbers of underachievers include high school graduates and dropouts. The problem of mass underachievement has been called the most important economic and social issue facing our country. Some believe that if this situation is not improved, our country will not continue to be great politically and economically (Butler, 1985).

Fortunately, there are strategies that will encourage minority and disadvantaged students to enter colleges and complete degree programs:

1. Students must be encouraged to aspire to higher education. Disadvantaged students need to be challenged to attend college and given the reassurance that they can succeed.
2. Students must receive adequate course preparation.

Students must have the coursework necessary to apply to colleges and universities. They need excellent instruction so they can deal effectively with the academic rigors of college.

3. Students must be encouraged to take college admissions tests. Many minority students complete college preparatory curricula with satisfactory grades, but are ineligible for university admission because of failure to take a college admissions test.

4. Colleges and universities must use effective and equitable admissions procedures. Admissions procedures must be able to identify minority and disadvantaged students who have the potential to succeed in higher education.

5. Students must be given adequate financial assistance. Without adequate financial aid, many students will be unable to begin degree programs or persist to their completion.

CHAPTER II

THE ACHIEVEMENT GAP: AN URGENT PROBLEM FOR EVERYONE

A. The Changing Demographic Profile

of Racial and Ethnic Minorities in California

1. The Increasing Diversity of California's Population

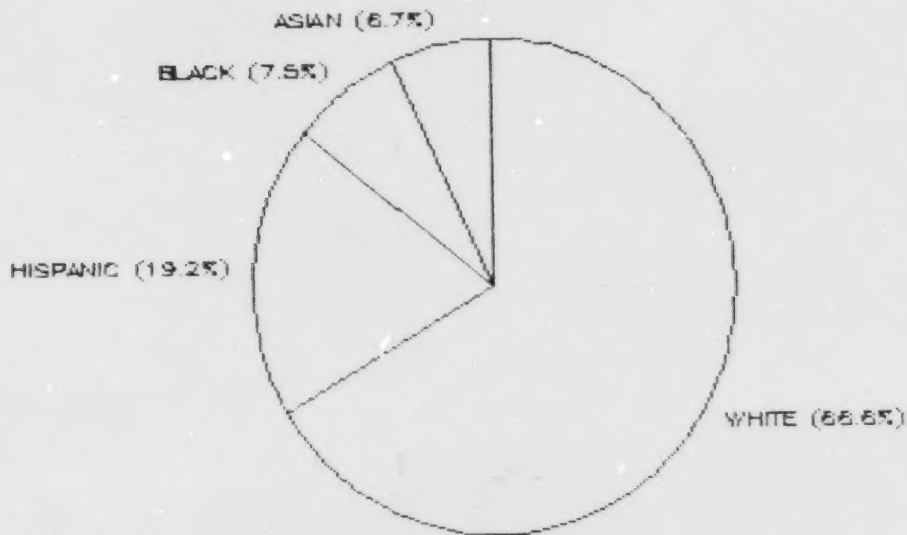
In California, Whites outnumber Blacks, Hispanics and other minorities. Figures 4 and 5 show that Whites will continue to be the modal racial group in the state through the year 2000. But projections also indicate that the relative proportions of ethnic groups will change. The population growth of Whites, Blacks, and Asians will tend to level off, but the Hispanic population growth rate will be high through the end of the century.

In 1980, four and one-half million Hispanics lived in California. At that time they composed almost one third of people of Spanish origin in the nation (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1985). California Hispanics are projected to number close to nine million by the year 2000. If this projection is correct, they would then compose 28% of the California's population, up from 19% in 1980.

During the twenty-year period from 1980 to 2000, the proportion of Whites in California is expected to drop from 67% to 55%. The proportion of Blacks is also expected to decrease slightly from 7.5% to 7.1%. The Asian sector is predicted to rise from about 6.7% to about 10%, surpassing the number of Black Californians during this period. When this

Figure 4.

CALIFORNIA'S ETHNIC COMPOSITION 1980

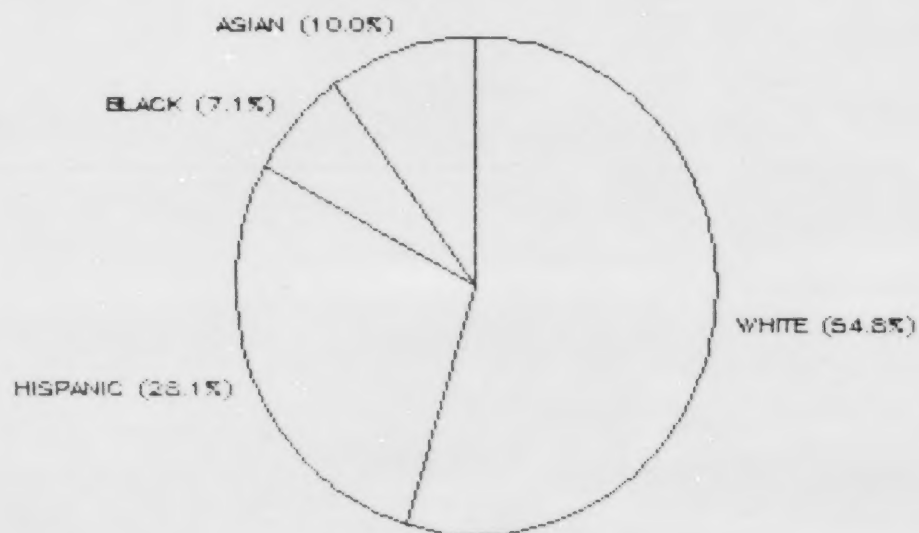


CALIFORNIA'S INCREASING DIVERSITY PERCENT

YEAR	WHITE	HISPANIC	BLACK	ASIAN
1980	66.6	19.2	7.5	6.7
2000	54.8	28.1	7.1	10

SOURCE: CALIFORNIA POSTSECONDARY EDUCATION
COMMISSION. A PROSPECTUS FOR CALIFORNIA
POSTSECONDARY EDUCATION. (1985)

Figure 5.
CALIFORNIA'S ETHNIC COMPOSITION
2000



happens, Hispanics and Asians will be the two largest minority groups in California.

2. Growth of the Minority School Populations

A similar, but amplified pattern of increasing proportions of minorities is found in California's school age population (Figure 6). In 1970, only 27% of California elementary and secondary students were minorities. But during the next decade, the minority sector expanded to 42%. By 1985, minority students accounted for 47% of the elementary and secondary enrollment in the state and over 50% of the enrollment in Kindergarten through grade 4. By the year 2000, "minority" students will constitute a majority in California's elementary and secondary schools (California Postsecondary Education Condition, 1985; California State Department of Education, 1985).

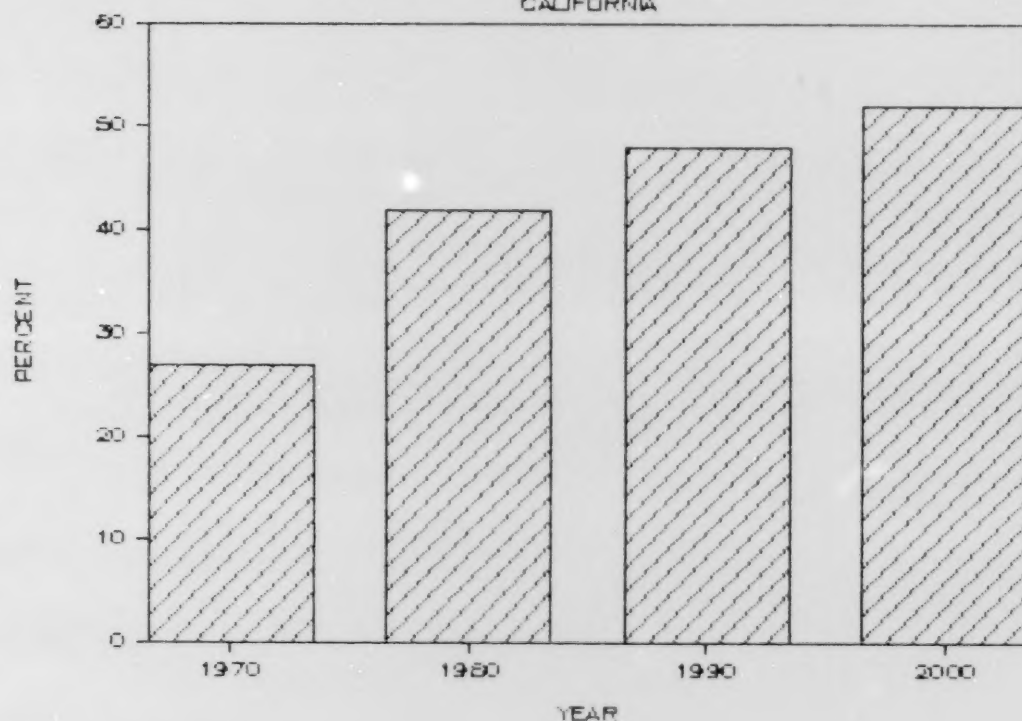
Increasing enrollment by minorities, especially Hispanics, is a phenomenon of the whole nation. Between Fall, 1976, and Fall, 1980, almost every state registered an increase in the proportion of Hispanics pupils in elementary and secondary schools. In most states, while numbers of Hispanic students increased, total enrollment decreased. Between 1976 and 1980, the proportion of Hispanics in California schools rose from 20% to 25% and the proportion of Hispanics in Texas schools rose from 25% to 30% (Grant & Eiden, 1982).

3. Racial/Ethnic Profile of Public Elementary and Secondary Schools Students

In the Fall of 1980, California had by far the largest elementary and secondary school enrollment of any state.

Figure 6.

MINORITY ENROLLMENT CALIFORNIA



MINORITY ENROLLMENT CALIFORNIA

YEAR	PERCENT
1970	27
1980	42
1990	48
2000	52

SOURCE: CALIFORNIA POSTSECONDARY EDUCATION
COMMISSION. A PROSPECTUS FOR CALIFORNIA
POSTSECONDARY EDUCATION. (1985)

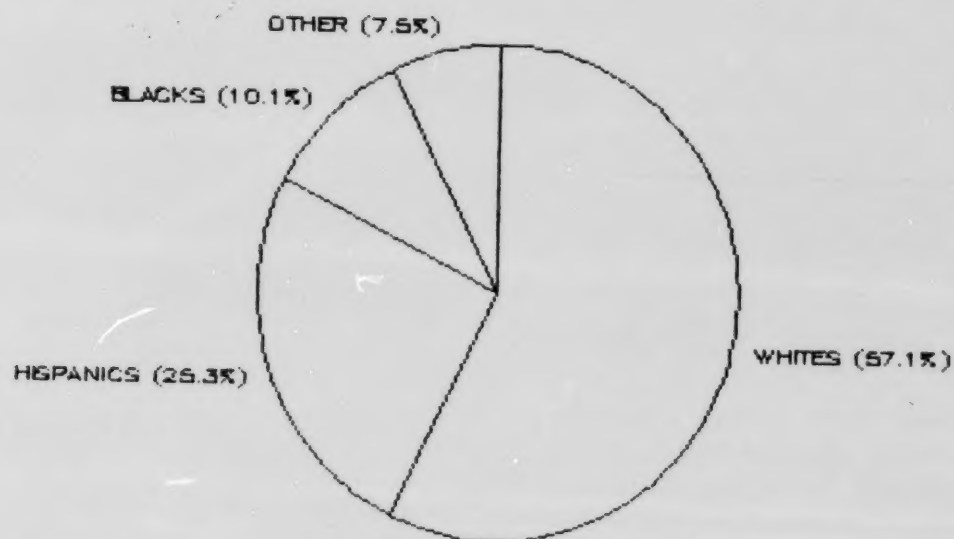
California public school enrollment was 3,954,586, followed by Texas (2,846,105), New York (2,712,925), and Illinois (1,907,303). Comparisons between these states are most informative because all have large enrollments of minority pupils besides large overall enrollments.

Texas is the state that is most similar to California demographically. The 1980 Civil Rights Survey revealed that 14.4% of Texas public school pupils are Black, compared to California's 10.1%. The Texas enrollment was 30.4% Hispanic; California's enrollment was 25.3% Hispanic. Proportions of Whites in both states are also comparable (See Figures 7 & 8)(Grant & Eiden, 1982).

New York schools also has substantial proportions of Blacks and Hispanics. But California and New York Hispanics are not directly comparable because New York Hispanics include vast numbers of Puerto Ricans. In the United States, Mexican-Americans are underrepresented in educational achievement, but Puerto Ricans are usually not considered underrepresented.

Between California and Florida, Blacks are more comparable than are Hispanics. As in New York, Hispanics in Florida include large numbers of Puerto Ricans. These examples show that California can be compared to many states in regard to educational opportunity for Blacks. But it is mostly the western states that provide good comparisons with California Hispanics.

Figure 7.
 SCHOOL ENROLLMENT DISTRIBUTION
 CALIFORNIA, 1960



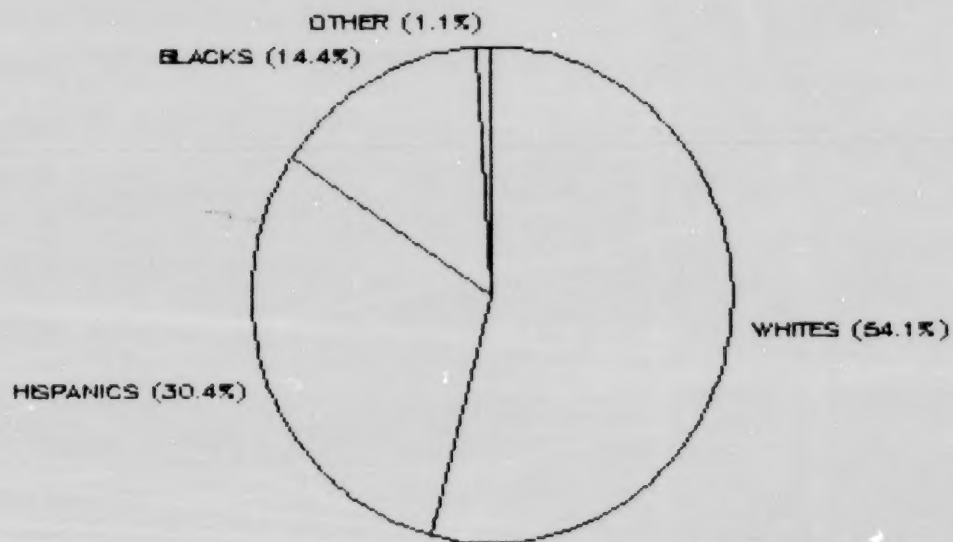
CALIFORNIA AND TEXAS, 1980

	CALIF	TEXAS
WHITES	57.1	54.1
HISPANICS	25.3	30.4
BLACKS	10.1	14.4
OTHER	7.5	1.1

SOURCE: GRANT (1981)

Figure 8.

SCHOOL ENROLLMENT DISTRIBUTION
TEXAS, 1980



B. Graduation Rates

In California, minority students are less likely to graduate from high school than are Whites. In 1984-85, Whites composed 61.9% of the State's twelfth graders, but 63.6% of the high school graduates. All other ethnic groups were less represented among graduates than among twelfth graders.

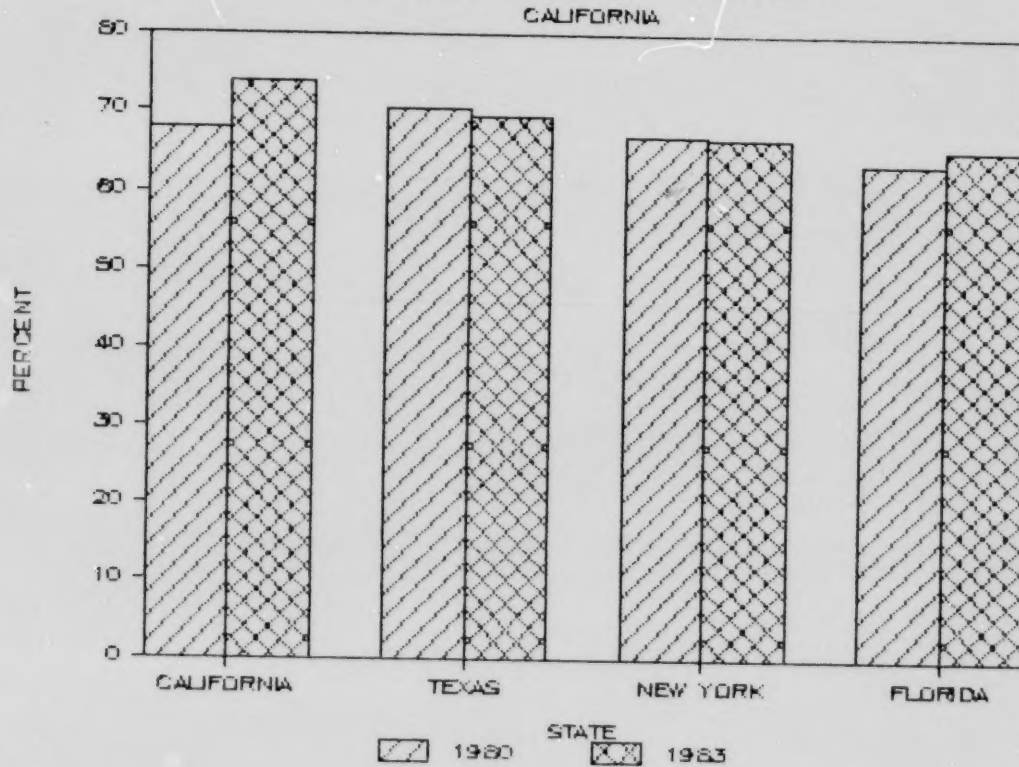
California's overall graduation rate is more alarming than racial/ethnic differences. In 1983, the graduation rate was 73.9%. Only fifteen states had worse records. Nonetheless, this was an improvement from 1980 when California's graduation rate was an abysmal 68%, almost four percent below the U.S. average and tenth worst in the country.

Yet these figures do not appear so serious when they are compared to graduation rates of states that are demographically similar to California (See Figure 9). Between 1980 and 1983, for example, the California graduation rate surpassed the rate for Texas. By 1983, California also had higher rates than New York (66.7%), and Florida (65.5%), states with large proportions of Blacks.

California also had higher graduation rates than many of its neighbors: Nevada (74.6%), Oregon (73%), New Mexico (71.4%), and Arizona (66.4%). But none of these graduation rates approached President Reagan's goal of 90% for the nation by 1990. By 1983, only two states had accomplished this goal: North Dakota (94.8%) and Minnesota (90.7%). Even so, most states have had rising graduation rates in recent years. Some states have made phenomenal increases. Delaware, for example, with about 26%

Figure 9.

GRADUATION RATES



GRADUATION RATES

	1980	1983
CALIFORNIA	68.1	73.9
TEXAS	70.4	69.4
NEW YORK	67.2	66.7
FLORIDA	63.6	65.5

SOURCE: U.S. NEWS AND WORLD REPORT

Black students, increased its graduation rate from 72.2%, only slightly above the national average in 1980, to 88.9% in 1983, the third highest in the country. California's increase of 7% during that interval, though not as dramatic, is also commendable.

C. Correlates of the Achievement Gap:

Unemployment, Juvenile Delinquency, and Criminality

1. Unemployment

According to the 1980 California census, Whites are the most represented racial group in the State's labor force. In 1980, they composed 69.7% of the labor force and 66.6% of the general population. Minority groups, which have relatively younger populations, are not as well represented in the labor force as they are in the population.

During the next few decades, of course, the racial and ethnic profile of California's labor force will have increasing proportions of minorities. With time, Whites will constitute less and less of the total working force; minority workers will compose more. The changing composition of the workforce makes elimination of the achievement gap is urgent business. For a healthy economy, California needs bright, capable workers of all races and in all occupations. Present achievement patterns will not guarantee an abundance of such workers.

Assuming that there will always be unemployed workers, the ideal ethnic distribution of the unemployed would be the same as the distribution of the labor force. That is, no ethnic group

would have greater representation among the unemployed than in the work force. Unfortunately, there is a sharp distinction between the racial/ethnic profile of California's labor force and the profile of the State's unemployed. Figure 10 shows the statewide distribution of unemployment claims for June, 1985. Whites and Asians are both underrepresented among the unemployed. Whites, for example, compose about 70% of the labor force, but only about 54% of the unemployed. Blacks and Hispanics are grossly overrepresented among the unemployed. American Indians have three times the representation among the unemployed as they do in the labor force.

The discrepancies between the profiles of the labor force and the unemployed are congruent with differences in educational achievement among racial and ethnic groups. Whites and Asians are on one side of the achievement gap; Hispanics, Blacks, and American Indians are on the other.

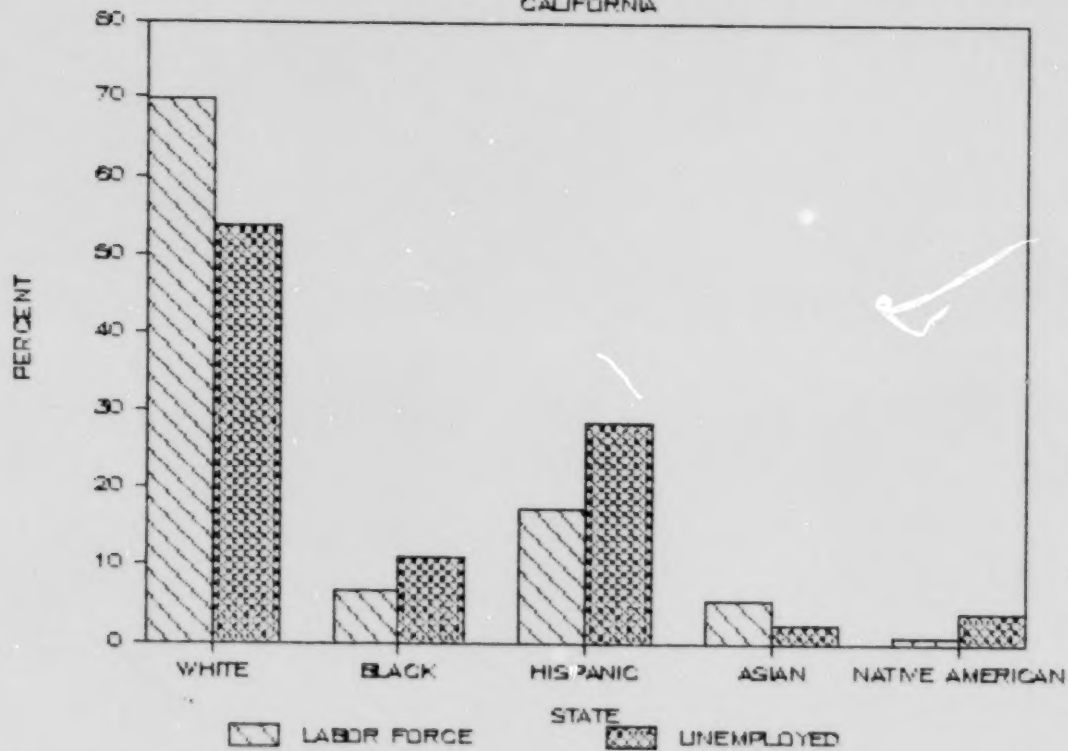
2. Juvenile Delinquency

Juvenile delinquency is another correlate of the achievement gap. On June 30, 1985, 31% of the wards of the California Youth Authority were Hispanic. Thirty-eight percent of the wards were Black, about four times the representation of Black youth in the population (State of California Department of the Youth Authority, 1985). Whites composed only 28.5% of the wards, down from 44% in 1973 (State of California Department of the Youth Authority, 1983). Paralleling the ethnic disparities in unemployment, we find those groups that are underrepresented in educational achievement are those overrepresented among juvenile

Figure 10.

LABOR FORCE AND UNEMPLOYED

CALIFORNIA



LABOR FORCE AND UNEMPLOYMENT CALIFORNIA

	LABOR, 80	UNEMPLOYMENT, 1985
WHITE	69.7	53.6
BLACK	6.6	11.1
HISPANIC	17.2	28.6
ASIAN	5.5	2.4
NATIVE AM	0.74	4

SOURCE: CALIF. DEPT OF FINANCE

delinquents.

L. The Moral and Practical Needs for Change

1. Moral Need

Since its birth, the United States of America has been committed to government by its people. Democracy, of course, requires an informed citizenry. Early this century, John Dewey expounded on the requirement of a sound education for a solid democracy.

During this century, our country has made leaps toward the democratic ideal; Suffrage has been conferred upon all people, regardless of sex, race, or ethnic origin. Our nation is closer to the ideal of equality of citizens than ever before. Yet we have failed to provide all persons with equality of educational opportunity.

In the educational manifesto The Paideia Proposal, Mortimer Adler wrote:

The ideal Dewey set before us is a challenge we have failed to meet...We are all sufferers from our continued failure to fulfill the educational obligations of a democracy...But we cannot continue to fail without disastrous consequences for all of us. For the proper working of our political institution, for the efficiency of our industries and businesses, for the salvation of our economy, for the vitality of our culture, and for the ultimate good of our citizens as individuals, and especially our future citizens--our children--we must succeed.

2. Practical Need

The moral exigencies of unequal educational opportunity are enough to make reform urgent business. But other effects of the achievement gap make the pragmatist take notice. If greater

numbers of Hispanics and Blacks are not helped to strive toward their academic potentials, California and other states will find themselves burdened with increasing numbers of young people who cannot help themselves.

Students who fail in school are likely candidates for the unemployment queue. They are also more likely to commit crimes and end up in state-supported prisons. School dropouts may also find that they lack competence in skills that are basic to most jobs: reading directions and warnings, giving explanations, and making simple computations. As a result, business and industry may have increasing difficulty finding qualified, dependable employees.

Redressing these problems will bring benefits to all citizens. In Arizona, an ad hoc committee, charged to study the state's university education for minority students clearly stated the universal benefit of closing the achievement gap:

The problems of recruitment and retention of minority students in the educational system are profound and do not lend themselves to simplistic or short-term solutions. The traditional manner of delivering educational services to the young people of Arizona needs to be reconsidered if meaningful changes in minority student recruitment and retention are to take place. If this is not done it will adversely affect all the people of Arizona, not just minorities. The loss if minority youngsters are not effectively educated will be reflected in the social consequences of wasted potential and in increasing economic burdens. We already see evidence of this in ever-increasing welfare roles and the need for vast expansion of the prison system.

Without strong efforts to close the achievement gap by the end of the century, California will beset itself with escalating social and fiscal difficulties. Now is when problems of

educational underachievement by minorities must be understood and combatted.

CHAPTER III
THE EDUCATIONAL DISADVANTAGE
OF ETHNIC AND RACIAL MINORITY STUDENTS IN CALIFORNIA
AND THE NATION

A. Education Level of Parents.

of SAT Examinees

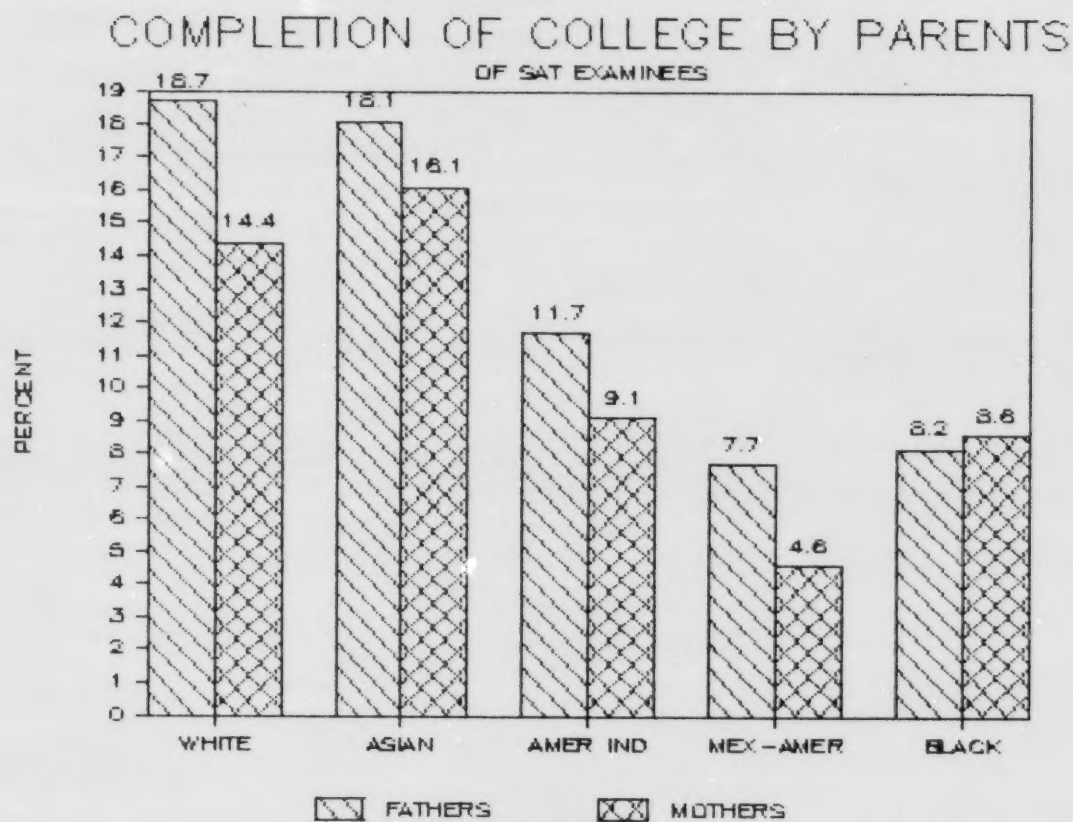
Among the 1983-84 SAT examinees, fathers of Whites and Asians were twice as likely to have received a bachelor's degree than were fathers of students from other groups. Only 7.7% of the Mexican-American examinees had fathers who completed a baccalaureate. In contrast, 18% of the fathers of Asian examinees completed college and 18.7% of the fathers of White examinees finished a bachelor's degree. There were similar patterns for the education levels of mothers of test takers. But the mean educational attainment of mothers was lower for all groups, except for Blacks (See Figure 11).

B. Family Income

In 1983-84, parental income was reported for SAT examinees. When these data are separated by racial/ethnic group, the familiar patterns of the achievement gap surface (See Figure 12).

Nationally, the parents of White SAT examinees have the highest median income, \$32,900. The median income for Orientals was next (\$25,400), followed by American Indians (\$22,500), Mexican-Americans (\$19,900), Puerto Ricans (\$19,900), and Blacks (\$16,000).

Figure 11.

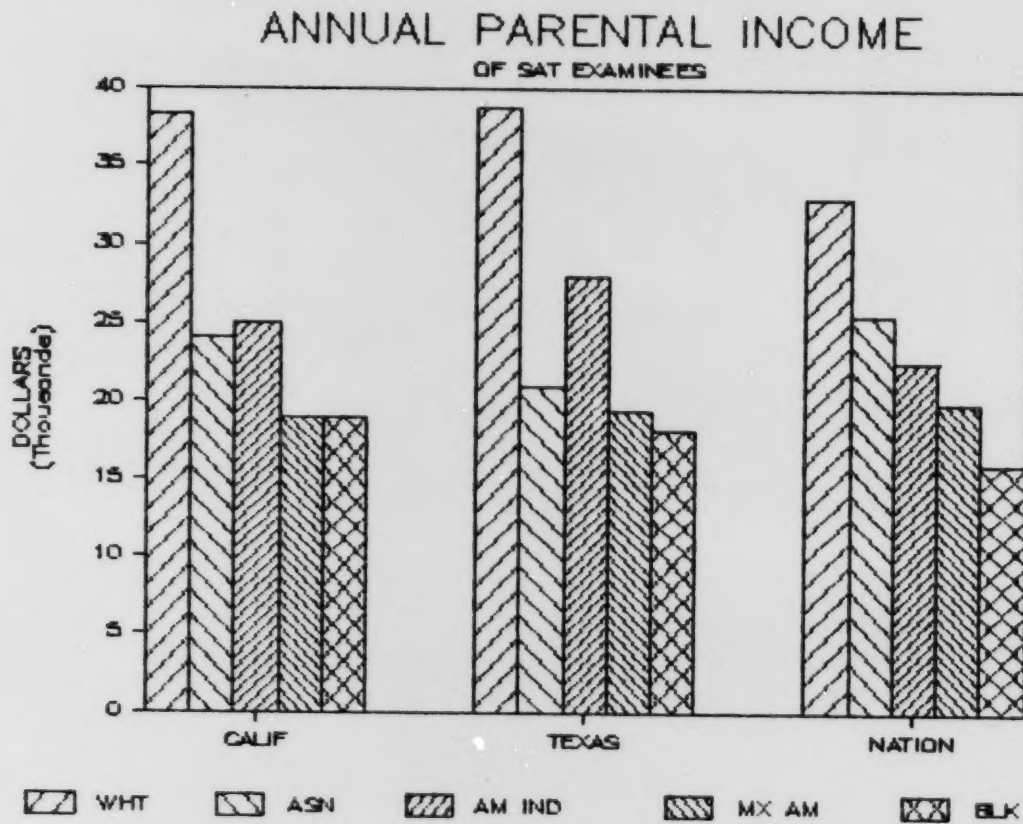


COMPLETION OF COLLEGE BY PARENTS
OF SAT EXAMINEES

	WHITE	ASIAN	AMER IND	MEX-AMER	BLACK
FATHER	18.7	18.1	11.7	7.7	8.2
MOTHER	14.4	16.1	9.1	4.6	8.6

SOURCE: ARBEITER, S. (1984). PROFILES,
COLLEGE-BOUND SENIORS, 1984. THE COLLEGE BOARD

Figure 12.



ANNUAL PARENTAL INCOME BY ETHNIC GROUP

	WHITE	ASIAN	AMER IND	MEX-AMER	BLACK
CALIF	38300	24100	24900	19000	19000
TEXAS	38800	21000	28000	19400	18200
NATION	32900	25400	22500	19900	16000

SOURCE: THE COLLEGE BOARD

California diverges from the national trends. Whites in California, for example, earn about \$6000 more annually than Whites nationally. Parents of Black and American Indian examinees, also, have higher median incomes in California than in the nation as a whole. Mexican Americans, however, have lower median incomes than their national counterparts. Oriental examinees in California also have parents who earn less than the national median income for families of college-bound Orientals.

Patterns of income in Texas are similar to patterns in California. Whites and American Indians have relatively high incomes. Orientals and Mexican-Americans have lower median incomes. Income for parents of Black examinees is higher than the national median.

Differences in income seem to affect SAT scores. On both math and verbal scales of the SAT, there is a positive relationship between family income and score. The smoothness of the function is remarkable. On each scale, differential family income can account for differences in scores of over 100 points.

These relationships are interwoven with the relationships between median income and racial and ethnic group. The median income of families of White SAT takers was more than twice the income of families of Black examinees. In general, minorities are poorer than whites, their admissions test scores are lower, and they are less represented in colleges and universities (Arbeiter, 1984).

During recent years, fees have risen rapidly in California's public universities. Fees have also increased steadily at

independent institutions. Until recently, these increases were often not accompanied by increases in student financial aid. This meant larger contributions from parents, more jobs for students, and a staggering increase in student loans (CPEC Background Papers to a Prospectus for California Postsecondary Education, March, 1985).

According to Arizona Universities' Study Group on Minority Student Recruitment and Retention, economic hardship is one reason why many minority students have difficulty in maintaining good grades at universities. Few are able to study full-time without some financial assistance. Generally, this assistance cannot come from parents. The needed funds may come from financial aid or employment, but employment may adversely affect study time.

C. English Deficiency.

1. Limited-English-Proficient Students in California

In 1984, the number of limited-English-proficient students in California rose to 487,835, more than doubling in seven years. The number of students who speak limited English continues to climb at a high rate. The number of these students was predicted to reach 525,000 by 1985.

In California, almost three fourths of public school students who speak limited English speak Spanish best. Most other students who speak limited English speak Asian languages. Vietnamese is the most common language in this category, but its speakers compose only 6.1% of the limited-English-proficient population of schools.

2. SAT Examinees: Proportions for Whom English is Not the Best Language

Twenty-five percent of the Asians examinees spoke English as their second language. Only 8% of Mexican-American examinees speak Spanish better than English. Nationally, 4.6% of the SAT examinees in 1983-84 spoke a language other than English best.

Students who spoke English best had a significant advantage on the SAT, particularly on the verbal section. Among male examinees, for example, the SAT verbal mean was 122 points higher for those who spoke English best. For females, the difference was 121 points.

Evidently, the disadvantage for many Asians does not prevent them from taking college admissions tests. For other groups, particularly Hispanics, lack of fluency in English may be a barrier to taking the tests.

Lack of proficiency in speaking English is a common condition in California schools. The proportion of limited-English-speaking students in California schools is about one eighth of the enrollment. As the achievement gap in California is addressed, it is important to be cognizant that lack of fluency in English is disadvantageous for all ethnic groups, and it may be a hindrance to the pursuit of higher education for many students.

D. Subjects Studied in High School

In the Student Description Questionnaire, the College Board asked 1983-84 SAT examinees how many years they had studied

various subjects in high school. Ethnic groups did not vary much on the number of years students studied English. White students studied English for an average of 4.02 years. The mean for Blacks, the lowest, was 3.90 years of English.

Great discrepancies appeared in the number of years students studied mathematics in high school. On the average, Asians studied math longer than any other group (3.86 years), followed by Whites (3.69 years). Means were lower for other ethnic groups: Mexican-Americans (3.44 years), American Indians (3.42 years), and Blacks (3.40 years).

Although the differences cited above may seem small, they are magnified when their effects on SAT scores are examined. When all examinees are considered, great differences appeared on the math subtest means between students who studied mathematics three years and those who studied four years in high school. The mean for students who took three years of high school mathematics was 496. The mean for those who studied four years was 568.

E. Proportion of SAT Examinees in a College Preparatory Program

Among SAT examinees in the 1983-84 academic year, 77.5% were enrolled in college preparatory programs. Only 14.3% of the examinees were from general tracks, and 7.5% were from vocational tracks. Students in tracks other than the college preparatory program were at a serious disadvantage on the SAT. In the verbal section, college prep students had a mean of 445. On the same section, students in the general track had a mean of 336. This indicates a mean percentile rank for students in the general

track in the bottom 20%. Means were lower still in the vocational track (Figure 13). Similar discrepancies were found on the mathematics section.

In the preponderance of California high schools, students are tracked into curricula of different intensity and quality (see below). Tracking procedures are ostensibly used so that teaching may be more effective in the more homogeneous groups that result. However, the huge differences in SAT scores between students from different groups show plainly that vocational and general tracks are perniciously restrictive for students who want to attend four-year institutions.

F. Deleterious Effects of Tracking

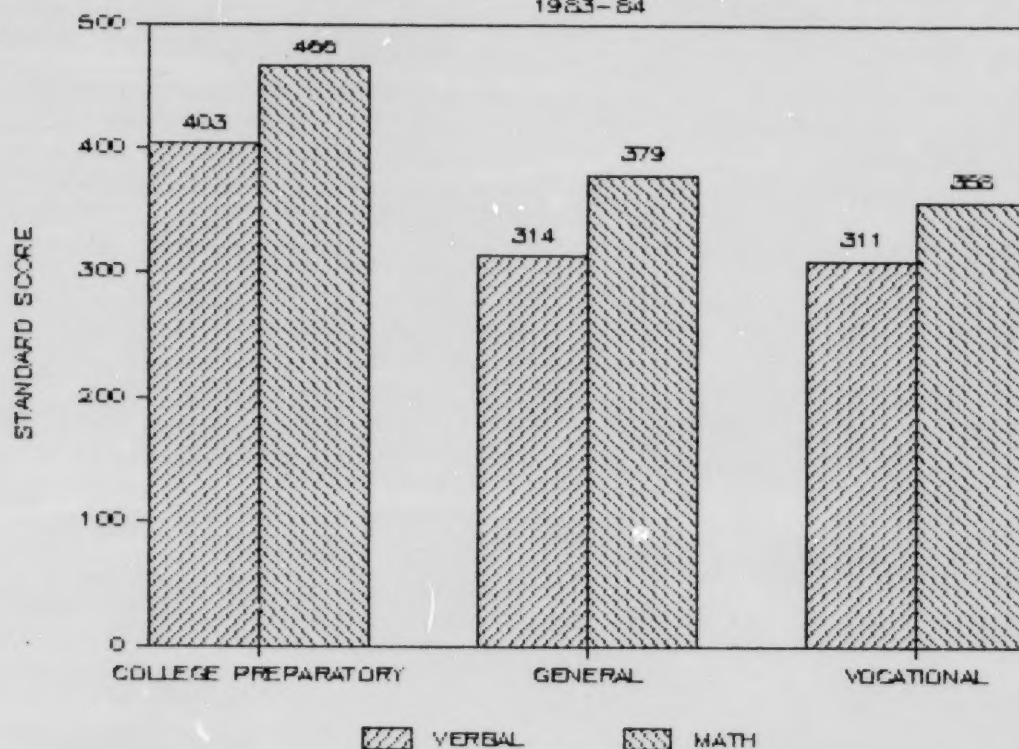
During the 1981-82 school year, the California State Department of Education studied the curricula of 26 high schools in detail. The study revealed that in all 26 high schools, students were sorted into tracks. The quality of education was found to vary drastically across tracks. For instance, in the general and remedial tracks, students received, on the average, about one hour less of academic instruction per day than the college preparatory track.

Also in the general and remedial tracks, planned course sequences were shorter, teacher expectations lower, and homework was assigned less often than in college preparatory tracks. Teachers frequently reported that they were less able to plan and teach courses for general and lower tracks, especially in math and science (Sanders et al., 1983).

Figure 13.

SAT MEANS BY TRACK

1983-84



SAT MEANS BY TRACK

	VERBAL	MATH
COLLEGE PREPARATOR	403	466
GENERAL	314	379
VOCATIONAL	311	358

SOURCE: ARBEITER, S. (1984). PROFILES,
COLLEGE-BOUND SENIORS, 1984. THE COLLEGE BOARD

CHAPTER IV
MINORITY REPRESENTATION AND SCORING
ON COLLEGE ENTRANCE EXAMINATIONS

A. A Comparison of the SAT and the ACT.

The Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) and the American College Testing Program (ACT) are the admissions tests commonly used by colleges and universities in the United States. The SAT is the older test and is constructed by the Educational Testing Service and administered by the College Board. The ACT was founded in 1959, and since then has grown to be as large as its competitor. Both organizations test about a million students annually. ACT tests more students in 28 states, primarily in the Midwest and the South (Berne, 1985).

In California, in 1983-84, 111,705 students took the SAT and 11,355 took the ACT. Both tests are acceptable as admissions criteria to the University of California and the California State University. Most independent colleges in the state also accept scores from either test.

The tests differ in purpose. The ACT is designed to measure classroom achievement in four broad content areas: English, mathematics, social studies, and natural science. The SAT is designed to measure academic aptitude. The two scores commonly reported from the SAT are verbal and mathematical. Both tests have approximately the same reliability and predictive validity, when college grades are the criterion. The correlation between

the tests is .85 (American College Testing Program, undated).

B. Trends in SAT and ACT Scores by Race and Ethnicity

During the past twelve years at least, college admissions test scores have dropped nationally. Since 1973, scores have fallen and gradually leveled out (National Center for Education Statistics, 1982; Arbeiter, 1984).

This trend holds for most states. But caution is in order. Trends in SAT scores seem to be linked to whether there are gains or declines in the number of students who take the SAT. Between 1976 and 1984, for example, Michigan gained eight points on the verbal mean and nine points on the mathematics mean. But also during this time, the number of students in Michigan who took the SAT dropped from 20,841 to 14,014. During the same period in Wisconsin, the opposite process occurred: mean scores dropped as the number of test-takers increased.

During the past eight years, the number of students who take the SAT annually has dropped about 6% (The College Board, 1984). But during the same period (1976 to 1984) the number of high school graduates dropped about 14%. Greater proportions of high school graduates took the SAT in 1984 than in 1976.

The mean SAT composite for California has dropped a mere three points since 1976. This represents the net result of falling verbal means (430 to 420) and rising mathematics means (470 to 476). The records of Blacks, Hispanics, and American Indians are impressive. These groups made gains in verbal and

mathematics scores. These gains were made when the number of test takers from each groups increased (See Figures 14-17). During the same period the number of Orientals in California who took the SAT more than doubled, rising from 6,557 to 13,235. The result was a drop in composite scores, but the mean for the mathematics subtest, 500, remained the highest subtest mean for any ethnic group in California, including Whites.

In Texas, the number of students who took the SAT increased between 1976 and 1984 from 49,589 to 58,110. During that interval, both verbal and mathematics subtest means dropped. In Texas, every racial/ethnic group had increases in the number of test takers between 1976 and 1984. The groups differed, however, in scoring trends. The verbal and mathematics means for Whites and Orientals decreased, but mean scores increased for American Indians, Blacks, and Mexican Americans.

C. The Effects of Increased Minority Representation

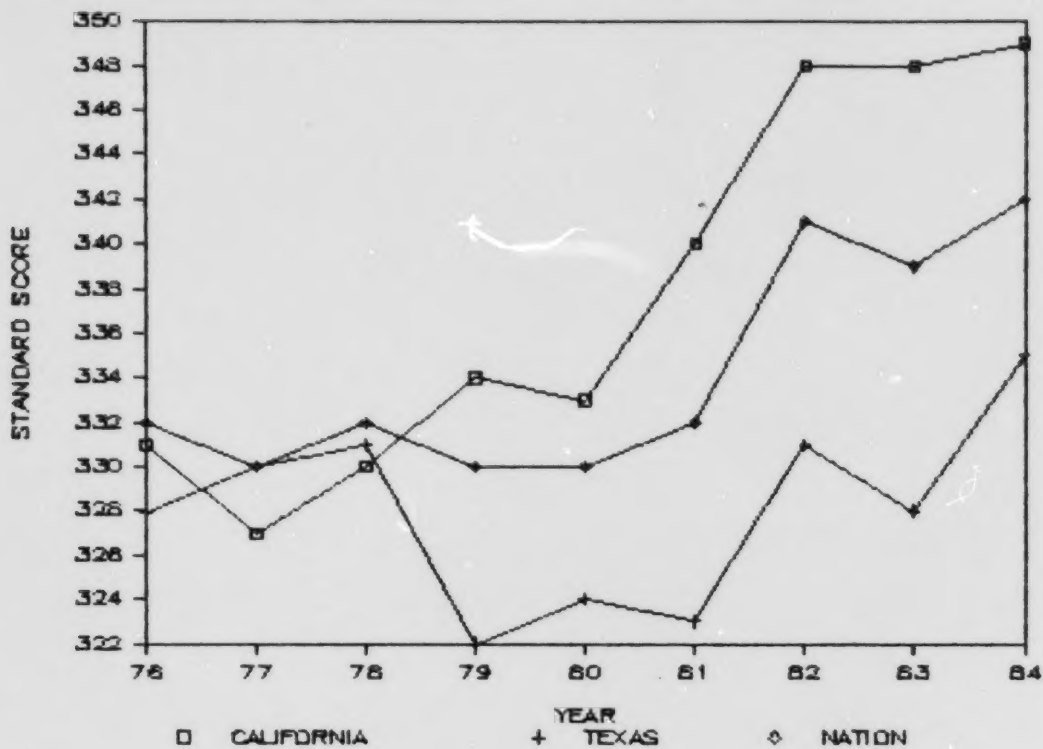
Among College Entrance Examinees(CA, TX, NY, Nation.)

Figures 18 and 19 show the proportions of Black and Hispanic high school graduates who take college admissions tests in California and Texas. In these states, the proportions of Blacks who took admissions tests has hovered around 30% since 1976. Proportions of Black examinees has usually been slightly higher for Texas, but in 1978 and 1982, California had a more satisfactory representation by Blacks among examinees.

The curve for New York is different (Figure 20). Prior to 1977, less than 30% of the twelfth graders took the SAT or the

Figure 14.

SAT VERBAL MEAN -- BLACKS



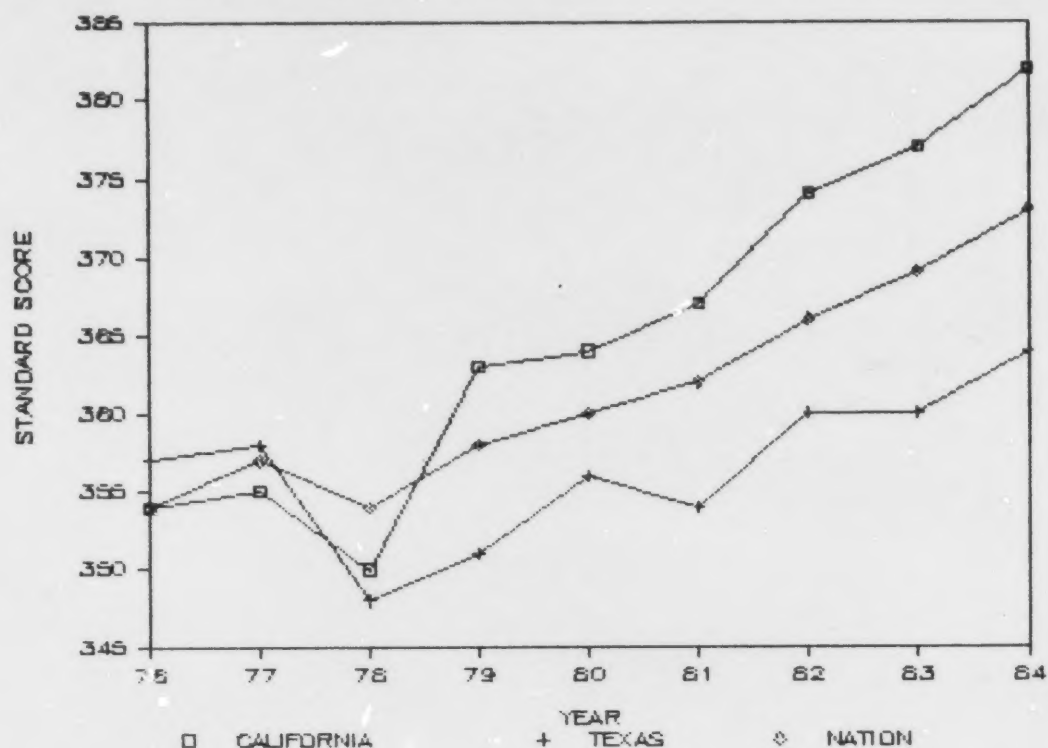
SAT SCORES BY RACE -- BLACKS, VERBAL

	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84
CALIF	331	327	330	334	333	340	348	348	349
TEXAS	328	330	331	322	324	323	331	328	335
NATION	332	330	332	330	330	332	341	339	342

SOURCE: THE COLLEGE BOARD

Figure 15.

SAT MATH MEAN -- BLACKS



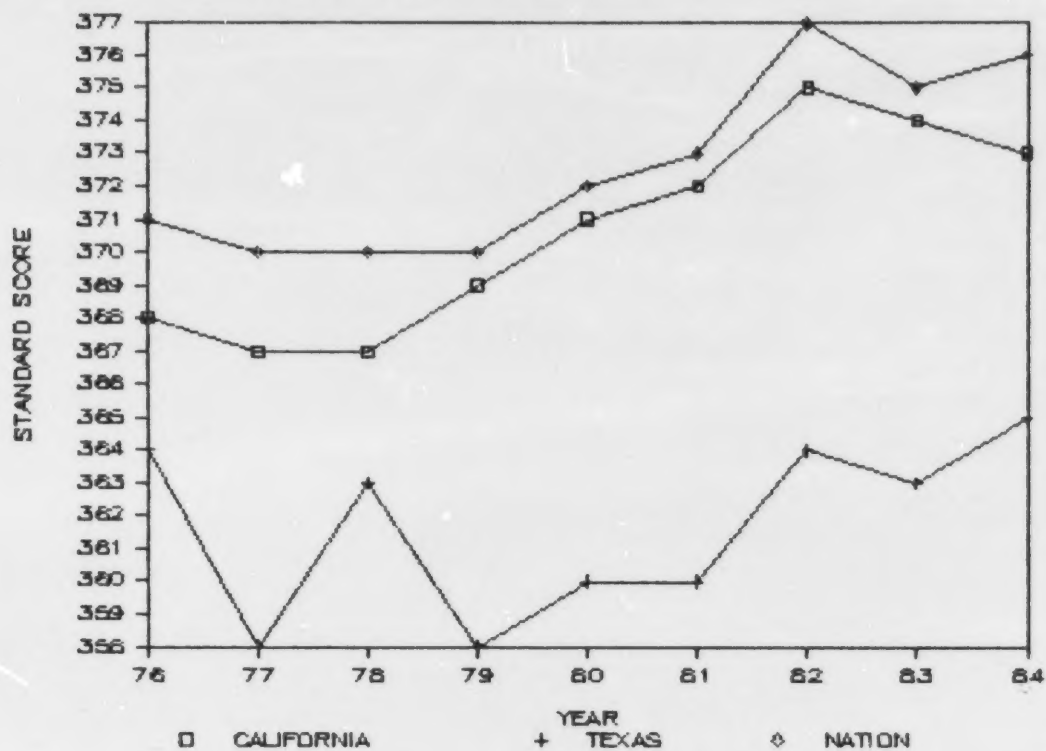
SAT SCORES BY RACE -- BLACKS, MATH

	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84
CALIF	354	355	350	363	364	367	374	377	382
TEXAS	357	358	348	351	356	354	360	360	364
NATION	354	357	354	358	360	362	366	369	373

SOURCE: THE COLLEGE BOARD

Figure 16,

SAT VERBAL MEAN -- HISPANICS



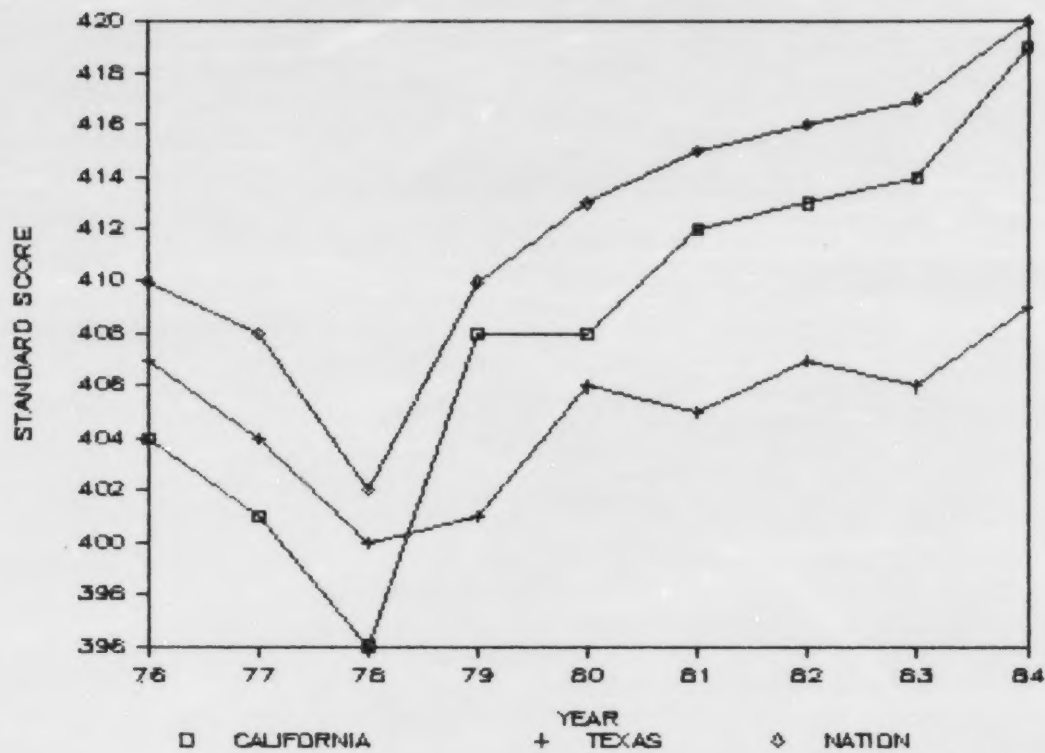
SAT SCORES BY RACE -- HISPANICS, VERBAL

	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84
CALIF	368	367	367	369	371	372	375	374	373
TEXAS	364	358	363	358	360	360	364	363	365
NATION	371	370	370	370	372	373	377	375	376

SOURCE: THE COLLEGE BOARD

Figure 17.

SAT MATH MEAN -- HISPANICS



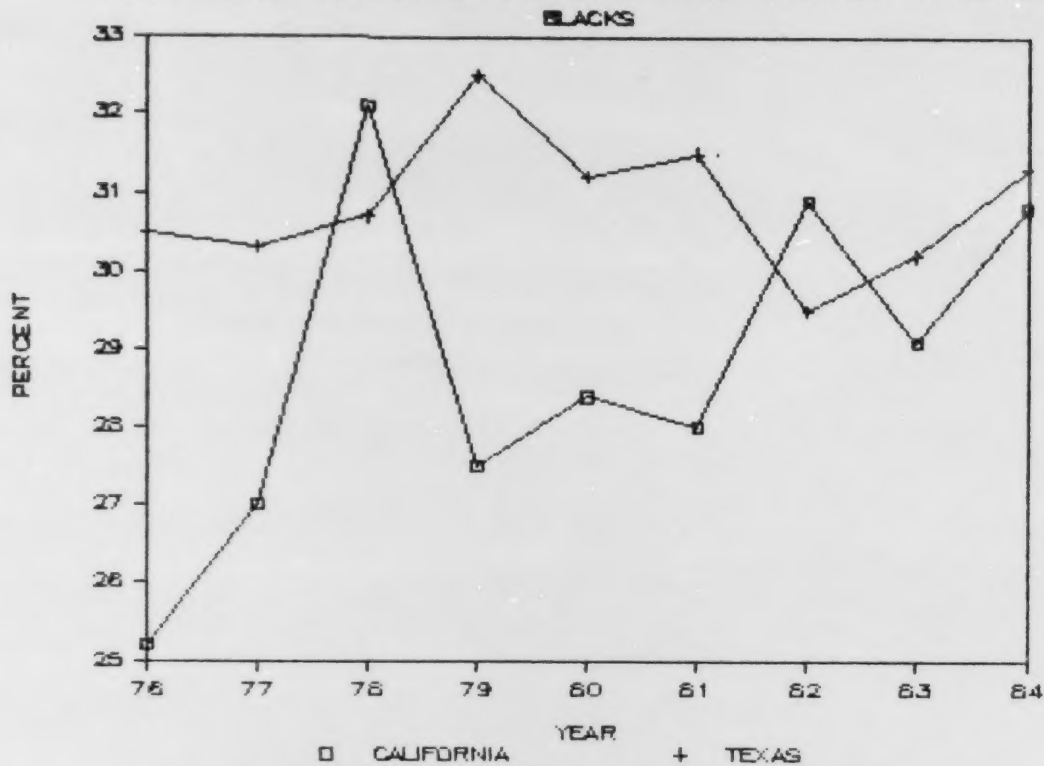
SAT SCORES BY RACE -- HISPANICS, MATH

	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84
CALIF	404	401	396	408	408	412	413	414	419
TEXAS	407	404	400	401	406	405	407	406	409
NATION	410	408	402	410	413	415	416	417	420

SOURCE: THE COLLEGE BOARD

Figure 18.

HIGH SCHOOL GRADS WHO TAKE THE SAT



PROPORTIONS OF HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES

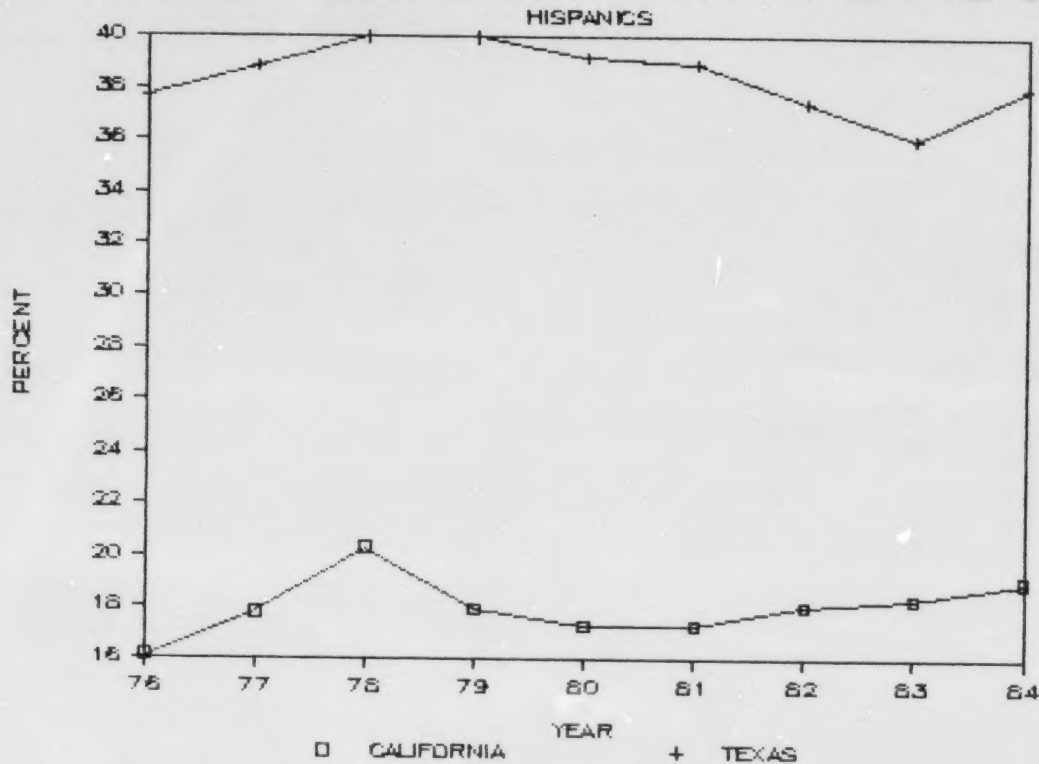
WHO TAKE COLLEGE ADMISSIONS TESTS -- BLACKS

	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84
CALIF	25.2	27.0	32.1	27.5	28.4	28.0	30.9	29.1	30.8
TEXAS	30.5	30.3	30.7	32.5	31.2	31.5	29.5	30.2	31.3

SOURCES: TEXAS EDUCATION AGENCY; CALIFORNIA STATE DEPT. OF EDUCATION; THE COLLEGE BOARD.

Figure 19.

HIGH SCHOOL GRADS WHO TAKE THE SAT



PROPORTIONS OF HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES

WHO TAKE COLLEGE ADMISSIONS TESTS -- HISPANICS

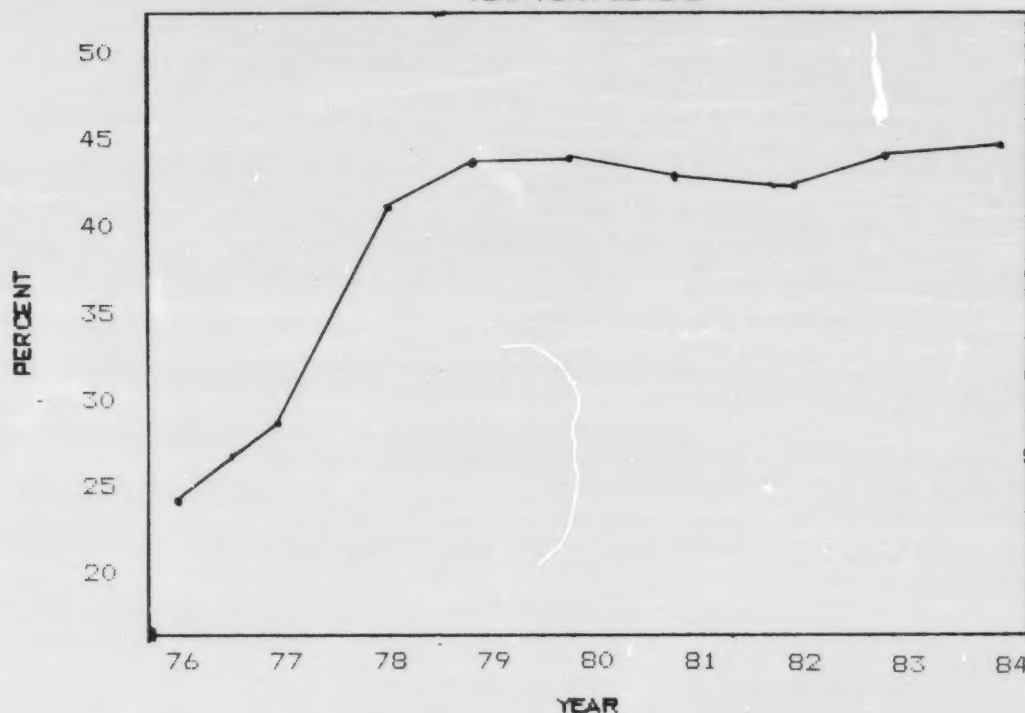
	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84
CALIF	16.1	17.8	20.3	17.9	17.3	17.3	18	18.3	19
TEXAS	37.7	38.8	40	40	39.2	38.9	37.4	36	38

SOURCES: TEXAS EDUCATION AGENCY; CALIFORNIA STATE DEPT. OF EDUCATION; THE COLLEGE BOARD.

Figure 20.

% OF 12TH GRADE TAKING ADMISSIONS TEST

NEW YORK BLACKS



PERCENT OF BLACK 12TH GRADE STUDENTS WHO TOOK
COLLEGE ADMISSIONS TESTS, NEW YORK STATE

76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84
24.1	28.4	41.9	43.1	43.6	42.8	42.5	44.7	45.6

SOURCES: THE COLLEGE BOARD; N.Y. STATE DEPT.
OF EDUCATION

ACT. In 1977, the proportion of twelfth grade students who took admissions tests increased dramatically from 28.4% in 1977 to 41.9% in 1978. Since that time, the proportion has stayed above 42% and, in 1984, reached 45.6%.

Has the increase in the number of test takers had any effect on the representation of Blacks in higher education? To answer this, it is feasible to eliminate enrollment figures from two-year colleges, which do not require the SAT or the ACT. Unfortunately, enrollment figures for public colleges in New York include data from two-year and four-year colleges. Racial/ethnic enrollment trends in the state's independent institutions, however, suggest that greater percentages of black examinees have increased representation.

Figure 21 shows the increased representation by Blacks as full-time undergraduates in independent institutions. During the 1976-77 academic year, black students composed 6.5% of the population. In 1978-79, the enrollment by Blacks had risen to 7.3%, and by 1980-81, the Black enrollment was 9.0%. This change represents a 38% increase in the representation by Blacks.

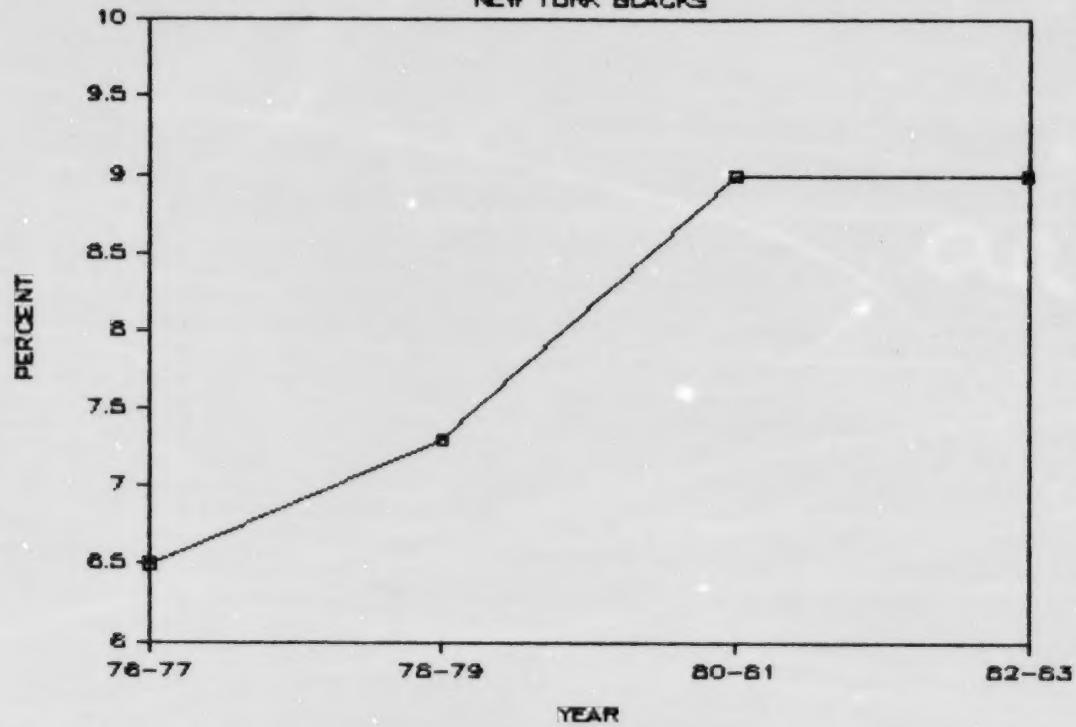
Similar evidence for the instrumentality of large numbers of test-takers is found in the public universities of Illinois. Between 1974 and 1984, the number of Hispanics students who took the ACT (the dominant test) nearly doubled. During this period, the number of Hispanic examinees rose from 931 in 1974 to 1540 in 1979. In 1984, 2113 Hispanic students took the ACT.

Ethnic data from Illinois public universities show that greater numbers of Hispanic examinees seem to be related to

Figure 21.

ENROLLMENT IN INDEPENDENT COLLEGES

NEW YORK BLACKS



BLACK ENROLLMENT IN INDEPENDENT INSTITUTIONS
AS FULL TIME UNDERGRADUATES IN NEW YORK STATE
YEAR 76-77 78-79 80-81 82-83
PERCENT 6.5 7.3 9 9
SOURCE: STATE UNIVERSITY OF NEW YORK

better representation in universities. Between 1974 and 1984, the number of Hispanic students in Illinois who took the ACT rose from 931 to 2113. During that interval, the number of Hispanic SAT examinees hovered around 150. Between 1976 and 1982, the percentage of Hispanic students in public Illinois universities rose from 12.6% to 23.8%.

These data suggest that college admissions tests may be a roadblock for many students who might otherwise enroll in four year colleges. Better postsecondary representation by ethnic minorities in California might be expedited by programs that vigorously encourage these students to register for admissions tests and to prepare for them. Projects that currently are aimed to this need must be encouraged, strengthened, and expanded.

D. Encouraging Minority Students to Take College Entrance Examinations

The California Postsecondary Education Commission has reported that among 1983 California high school graduates, Hispanics were most likely to be ineligible for matriculation in the California State University because of failure to take a college admissions test. The commission also reported that over 50% of Hispanics fell into this category. To counter this problem, the commission recommended encouraging potentially eligible students to take college entrance examinations. They recognized that the methods to do this warrant detailed investigation.

1. Efforts to Increase the Number of College Admissions Test Takers

a. Bakersfield: Kern High School District. Tomas Arciniega, President of California State College, Bakersfield, has led an effort to increase the number of minority college admissions test takers in Kern High School District in Bakersfield. Arciniega, who is also Chair of the Commission on Hispanic Underrepresentation for the California State University, asked American College Testing to provide free college admissions testing to students in Kern High School District for a three year period. The request was granted, and starting May, 1985, tests were administered without charge to students in the district.

b. San Antonio, Texas: Options for Excellence Options for Excellence is a project sponsored jointly by the College Board and the high school districts in the San Antonio, Texas, area. One component of the project was an effort to increase the number of Preliminary Scholastic Aptitude Test (PSAT) examinees in the area. The PSAT was offered without charge to all high school juniors in Bexar County, Texas, for three years. This project is described in more detail in Chapter VII.

c. New York City: Regents Scholarship Program Every year, The Board of Regents of the New York State Department of Education awards college scholarships for high marks on college admissions tests. The award to each scholar is one thousand dollars.

Until 1977, the Board of Regents had its own staff construct the Regents' Scholarship Examination. In the spring of 1977, the

New York State Legislature voted to eliminate the examination and used college admissions tests instead. One justification for this change was the very high correlation between the Regents' Scholarship Examination and SAT and ACT scores. By using the ACT and the SAT, the legislature eliminated the \$150,000 annual budget for construction of the test.

One result of replacement of the Regents' Examination with college admissions tests was a huge jump in the number of students who took the SAT and the ACT. The number of ACT and SAT test-takers rose from 155,883 to 179,820 between 1977 and 1978. During that same interval, the number of Black examinees rose from 7,760 to 11,346 and has remained fairly constant since then.

d. Assembly Bill 2321 Recently, a bill sponsored by the Mexican American Legal Defence Education Fund (MALDEF) was passed by the California Legislature. If the bill is signed by the governor, it will require the California Superintendent of Public Instruction to establish college admissions test preparation pilot projects. The aim of the bill is to improve representation by economically disadvantaged and ethnic minority groups in public postsecondary educational institutions. The pilot projects would be awarded for three year grant periods. In the projects, activities and materials will be presented to students to help them prepare for admissions tests. They will also be coached in test-taking strategies. Students will practice on retired admissions tests.

The program will be evaluated on its implementation and increases in college participation rates from students involved

with pilot projects. Also, the success of the projects will be assessed on whether students' scores improve during the coaching.

2. Preparation for the Examinations

ACT provides a free booklet to all examinees entitled "Preparing for the ACT assessment". In this booklet there are descriptions of general test-taking strategies as well as strategies for the ACT. Also included is a practice test and a section of scoring and interpreting test results. The College Board provides similar materials to SAT examinees.

The National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP) has developed a multimedia package that will help students prepare for the ACT Assessment. The material includes printed booklets, a videotape, and software suited to the Apple IIe (American College Testing Program, 1985).

The materials aim to develop test taking skills and reinforce academic knowledge. The package is offered at cost by NASSP. More information about the preparation materials is available from the following address and phone number:

Thomas Koerner
NASSP Director of Publications
1904 Association Drive
Reston, Virginia, 22091
telephone (703) 860-0200

3. Fee Waivers

American College Testing grants fee waivers to students who show financial need. Any Upward Bound participant is eligible to receive a fee waiver. ACT also provides waivers to individuals

who qualify as economically disadvantaged. If a student is a ward of the state, this qualification is met. Students also qualify if their family income is at or below the Low Standard Budget of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, or if the family is on public assistance.

Fee waiver request forms are available from the following office:

Director

ACT Registration

701 Howe Avenue, Suite H-58

Sacramento, CA 95825

A fee waiver request may also be written on school letterhead stationery. Such a request must explain that alternative funding is not available in the community.

Fee waivers are also granted to needy students through the College Board ATP Fee Waiver Service. Eligibility for a waiver is determined by virtually the same criteria used by ACT.

CHAPTER V
THE ESTABLISHMENT OF EQUITABLE
COLLEGE ADMISSIONS REQUIREMENTS

A. Community Colleges.

Under the 1960 Master Plan, the community colleges in California have an open door policy. This means that any high school graduate or anyone eighteen or older will be admitted to a college, if he can benefit from the experience.

Community colleges play a crucial role in California commitment to universal access to higher education. About 70% of California students who attend school after high school go to two-year institutions. (Improving Student Performance in California, 1982).

B. California State Universities and Colleges.

1. Eligibility Index

According to the 1960 Master Plan, the California State University admits students who are in the top third of the graduating class of the state. Combinations of GPA and SAT scores determine whether students meet the 33% criterion. A students with a GPA of 3.0, for example, must have an SAT composite score of 672 or an ACT composite of 15 in order to be admitted. All students with GPAs above 3.2 are eligible for admission; students with grade point averages GPAs lower than 2.0 are ineligible.

2. Eligibility Rates by Ethnicity

An eligibility rate is the proportion of students who meet requirements for admission established by a university. Among 1983 high school graduates in California, nearly 50% of the Asian students met the eligibility requirements. Hispanics and Blacks had much lower eligibility rates. For Hispanics, 15.3% of high school graduates were eligible. The eligibility rate for Blacks was 10.1%.

But many more students are eligible for admission to the C.S.U. system than actually enroll. In fact, it is possible to see racial/ethnic imbalance in higher education as an enrollment problem, rather than an eligibility problem. Eligible Asians and Blacks enroll more frequently than other groups, including Whites. Hispanics are least likely to enroll, with only 33% of those eligible for admission to California State Universities actually enrolling. There is a similar pattern in Arizona, where 75% of those minorities who are qualified to enter a university do not attend (Report to the Council of Presidents).

In California, there seems to be a certain sector of Blacks who make postsecondary education a strong goal. Although this sector is not large, it is persistent. The Blacks who enroll in college preparatory courses end up taking the necessary college admissions tests, enrolling, and earning bachelors degrees or higher degrees.

Larger proportions of Hispanics start off with "good intentions", but seem to withdraw more readily from the path to the baccalaureate. A professor at San Francisco State University

called Hispanics the "delicate" population. It is sometimes difficult to keep Hispanic students actively pursuing academic goals.

C. The University of California

1. Eligibility Index

The eligibility index for the University of California maintains a minimum standard such that only the top one third of graduating seniors are eligible for admission. This standard was adopted in the 1960 Master Plan. As with the C.S.U., eligibility criteria are grade point averages and college admissions test scores.

2. Eligibility Rates by Ethnicity

The pattern of eligibility rates for different ethnic groups is nearly identical to the pattern for the C.S.U. Asians, once again, had the highest eligibility rate (26%), followed by Whites (15.5%). Blacks and Hispanics had much lower eligibility rates, 3.6% and 4.9%, respectively.

D. Admissions Test Scoring Patterns of Minorities.

There is a growing body of evidence that minorities differ from Whites in scoring patterns on college admissions tests. Joan Bissell of ACT has recently completed statistical analyses that show that minority students tend to have more disparate scores on subtests than Whites. The implication is that composite scores, which are routinely used as admissions criteria, may hinder recognition of talented minorities.

Minority representation is increased when high scores on subtests are used for defining the top one third of test-takers. Using this criterion, Black representation almost triples. There are also large gains among Mexican-Americans. These patterns hint that composite scores are not the most effective indicators of academic promise among minority students.

The possible use of subtests as metrics for determining college eligibility has generated considerable interest in the University of California and California State University admissions offices. Admissions officers have unsuccessfully sought for alternative means of objectively assessing applicants. Now, however, several California campuses are preparing to experiment using subtest scores as admissions criteria.

The California Education Code allows for experimental admissions procedures on C.S.U. campuses, if those procedures are well-defined and show face validity. Under this provision, C.S.U. campuses at Hayward, Los Angeles, Sonoma State, Bakersfield, and Fullerton will admit one hundred students during 1985-86 and the following two academic years. The special admissions criteria are that subtest scores will be in the top one third of the score distributions.

U.C. campuses can bypass normal admissions requirements for "special action" students. The admissions offices at U.C. Berkeley and U.C.L.A. are planning to set aside about twenty-five special action slots for those talented students who are high scorers on subtests.

CHAPTER VI
MONITORING PROGRESS TOWARD EQUAL REPRESENTATION
IN HIGHER EDUCATION AND CAREERS

A. Community Colleges

1. Trend Data

Between 1976 and 1982, the composition of California community colleges changed. The percentage of enrolled Whites dropped during this time from 75.1% to 68.0%. Hispanic enrollment has steadily increased from 10% to 12.5%. Asian enrollment has nearly doubled, rising from 4.2% to 8.2%. The proportion of Blacks fluctuated, but has resulted in a net increase (9.0% to 9.7%). The proportion of American Indians has remained fairly constant at 1.7%.

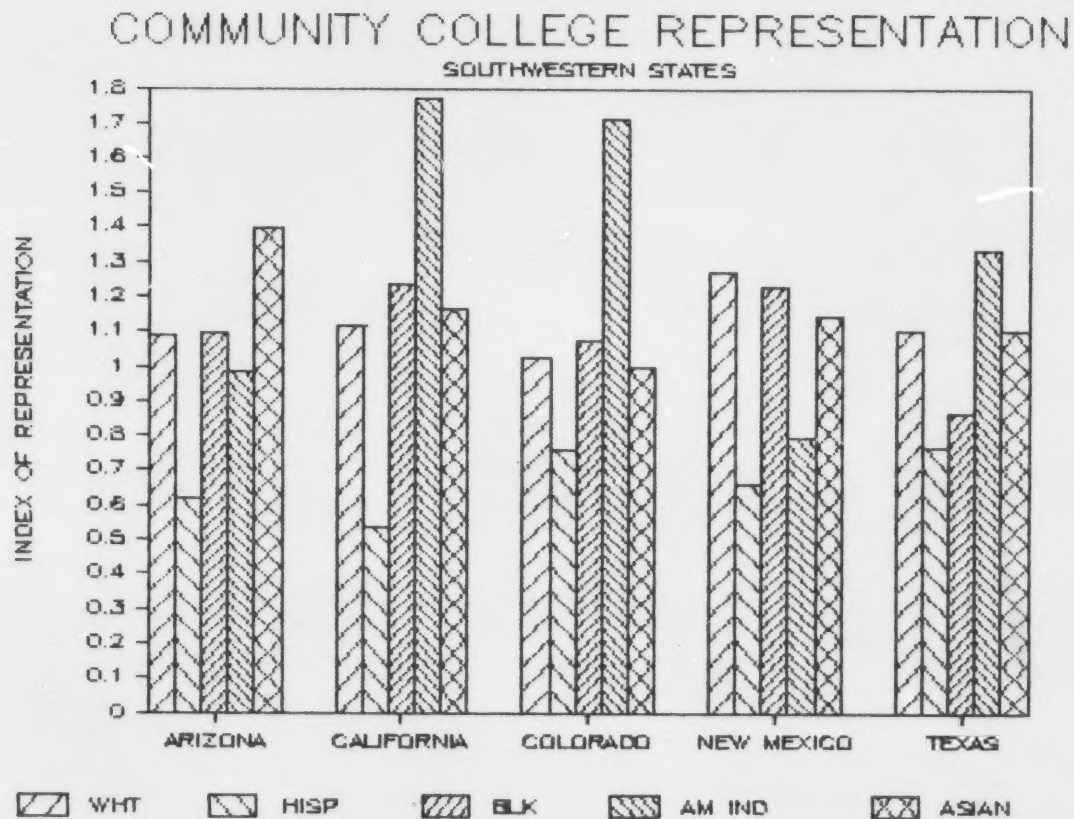
2. Indexes of Representation for Hispanics and Blacks

Hispanics are, by far, the least represented racial/ethnic group in California's community colleges (See Figure 22). The index of representation for Hispanics is 0.539. This means that the proportion of Hispanics in community colleges is only about half the proportion of 20-29 year olds who are Hispanics.

All other racial/ethnic groups have higher indexes of representation. The American Indian index is 1.7, indicating an unusually high representation. American Indians are also very well represented in community colleges in Colorado and Texas.

Blacks are also well represented in community colleges in California and other states in the Southwest. In 1980,

Figure 22.



**ETHNIC REPRESENTATION IN COMMUNITY COLLEGES
IN THE SOUTHWESTERN STATES**

	WHITE	HISPANIC	BLACK	AMERICAN	ASIANN
ARIZONA	1.086	0.618	1.094	0.981	1.4
CALIFORNI	1.116	0.539	1.234	1.778	1.167
COLORADO	1.028	0.763	1.077	1.714	1
NEW MEXIC	1.274	0.662	1.227	0.795	1.143
TEXAS	1.105	0.77	0.864	1.333	1.1

SOURCE: CALIFORNIA POSTSECONDARY EDUCATION COMMISSION

California had the highest index for Blacks. Only Texas had an index less than one.

It is no surprise that Whites and Asians are well represented in community colleges throughout the Southwest. Their indexes of representation do not fall below one. Yet these groups are not greatly overrepresented, perhaps because many students from these groups enroll in four year colleges and in universities.

Representation for Hispanics in community colleges is poor throughout the Southwest. Representation in California was the worst for all the Southwestern states in 1980. This becomes more distressing when one realizes that, for many Hispanics, community colleges are the main avenue toward the baccalaureate.

3. Transfer to Four Year Colleges

The transfer function of California's Community Colleges must be strengthened if it is to serve the State's increasing number of disadvantaged young people who have been enrolling in community colleges. The transfer function was a cornerstone of the State's commitment to provide access to postsecondary education up to the baccalaureate degree (California Postsecondary Education Commission, 1985).

This commitment of access involved the assurances that community colleges would remain open-door institutions for all high school graduates and others at least 18 years of age who could profit from the instruction offered. Transition was to be smooth with a minimum loss of time and credit.

In 1984, the California Postsecondary Education Commission

appointed an Ad Hoc Committee on Community College Transfer. Also in 1984, the Community Colleges Board of Governors Assigned the transfer function top priority for work in 1984. All three segments of public higher education have requested special funds for transfer centers in their budget change proposals for 1985-86.

The 1960 Master Plan expressed the principle that admission to the University of California and the California State University should be selective, but that this should not prevent anyone from pursuing a bachelor's degree if that student can demonstrate ability to do college level work at an open-door admissions community college.

Many graduates of California universities first attended community colleges. In 1982-83, 21% of all U.C. baccalaureate degrees and 50% of all C.S.U. baccalaureate degrees were granted to students who attended community college before attending the universities.

4. Los Rios Transfer Opportunity Program

Recently, the Los Rios Community College District of Sacramento has instituted a program to encourage transfer of students from community colleges to universities. The program was a cooperative effort between the Los Rios District and the University of California at Davis. A half-time admissions advisor from U.C. Davis helped to increase transfers from the Los Rios District to U.C. Davis by 16%. This program was cited by the Ford Foundation as the "only transfer program in the U.S. having quantitative data to back up its success."

The Transfer Opportunity Program will soon be expanded through funds made available from the California Community Colleges Transfer Center Program. The purpose of the Transfer Center Program is to strengthen the transfer function of community colleges, with special emphasis on increasing opportunity for low income minority and other underrepresented students who are enrolled in community college. The grant will allow transfer centers to be set up in each of the community colleges within the Los Rios District: American River College, Consumnes River College, and Sacramento City College. Three universities will participate in the project: California State University, Sacramento, U. C. Davis, and University of the Pacific, in Stockton. An admissions advisor from U.C. Davis will work full time at the transfer centers and a transfer advisor from C.S.U. Sacramento will be available one day per week.

In their transfer center proposal, the Los Rios District cited a Fall, 1984, enrollment of 39,000 students. Of those students, 18,000 stated that their goal was to transfer to a college or university. But of those 18,000 students, only 1800 actually transferred to a university in the U.C. or C.S.U. system at the end of two years.

One of the activities of the new transfer centers will be to compile a master list of potential transfer students and then to aggressively campaign for these students to participate in the transfer program. Besides encouraging their own students to transfer, the Los Rios District has vigorously encouraged high school students within their district to enroll. But these

recruitment efforts were not in competition with the local universities. For over fifteen years, the District has participated in the Cooperative High School Visit Program. In this program, a team of representatives from the Los Rios Colleges, C.S.U. Sacramento, and U.C. Davis annually visit the 37 high schools in the Los Rios District.

B. Four Year Colleges

California Asians are, by far, the most represented racial/ethnic group in California four year colleges. In 1980, their index of representation of 1.9 means that they were nearly twice as prevalent in four year colleges as they were in the State's 20-29 year old population (See Figure 23).

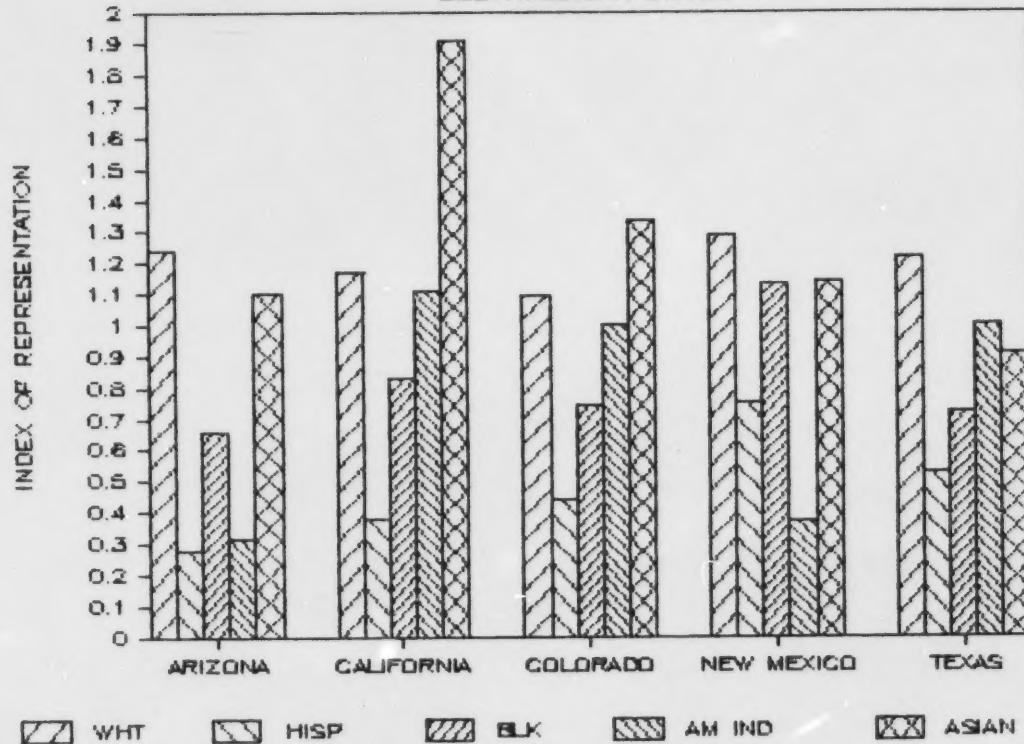
This index lies in stark contrast to the index of representation for California Hispanics: 0.378. Hispanics were extremely underrepresented in California's four year institutions and, as will be shown later, were even less represented in graduate school. New Mexico had much better representation for Hispanics (0.748). Hispanics are also poorly represented in Texas and Colorado, but not as poorly as in California. Arizona had the worst representation of the southwestern states, 0.276 (California Postsecondary Education Commission, undated).

Although Blacks were underrepresented in California's four year colleges, they were better represented in California (0.827) than in other southwestern states, with the exception of New Mexico. In New Mexico, Blacks were slightly overrepresented in four year institutions. In 1980, however, Blacks composed only

Figure 23.

FOUR YEAR COLLEGE REPRESENTATION

SOUTHWESTERN STATES



ETHNIC REPRESENTATION IN FOUR YEAR COLLEGES IN THE SOUTHWESTERN STATES

	WHITE	HISPANIC	BLACK	AMERICAN	ASIANN
ARIZONA	1.238	0.276	0.656	0.315	1.1
CALIFORNI	1.17	0.378	0.827	1.111	1.907
COLORADO	1.092	0.438	0.744	1	1.333
NEW MEXIC	1.284	0.748	1.136	0.373	1.143
TEXAS	1.217	0.526	0.72	1	0.909

SOURCE: CALIFORNIA POSTSECONDARY EDUCATION COMMISSION

2.2% of Arizona's school population. In general, California Blacks are fairly well represented, at least in comparison with Blacks from other states.

American Indians are well-represented in four-year institutions in California. Their index of representation of 1.111, slightly above the indexes of Colorado and Texas, which are both exactly one. Arizona and New Mexico have the poorest representation of American Indians. They are also the states with the largest proportions of American Indians.

Throughout the Southwest, Whites are well represented in four year colleges. Indexes of representation range from 1.092 for California, to 1.284 for New Mexico. California's index for Whites is 1.170, which is small in comparison to the 1.907 figure for California Asians (California Postsecondary Education Commission, undated).

C. Graduate Schools: Indexes of Representation.

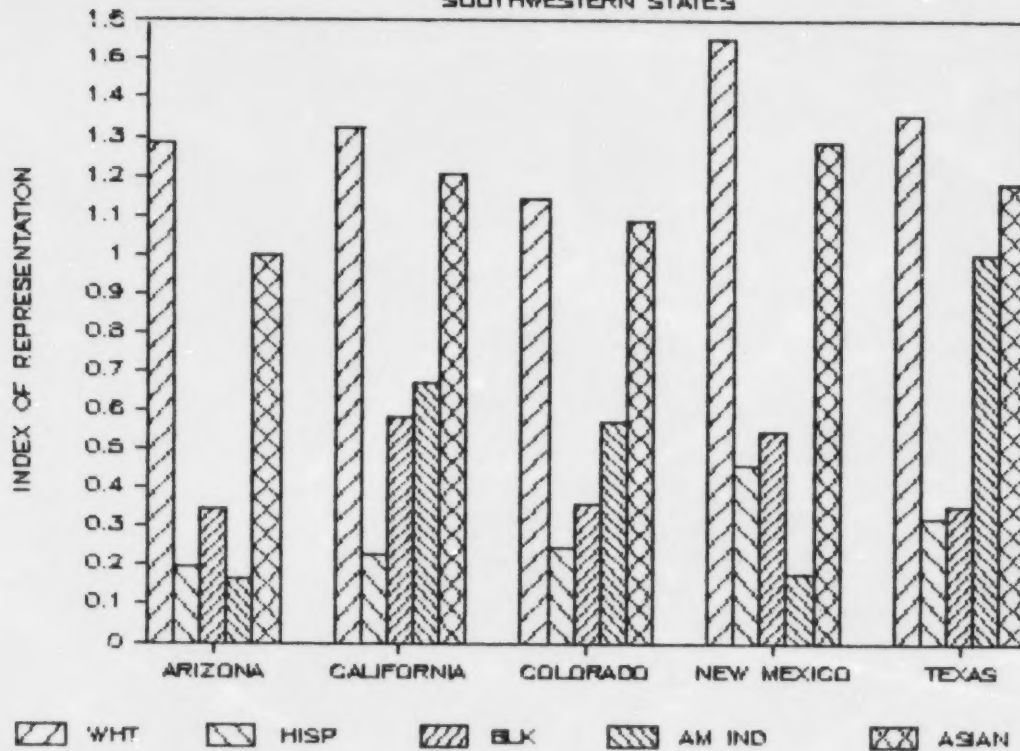
In California graduate schools in 1980, Hispanics were abysmally underrepresented. Their representation in graduate schools was less than one fourth their representation in the 20-29 year population. Hispanics are also very poorly represented in other states of the Southwest. But only Arizona had a worse representation index than California for Hispanics in graduate schools (See Figure 24).

Blacks are also quite underrepresented in California graduate schools. But all other states in the Southwest have poorer graduate school representation by Blacks. Once again,

Figure 24.

GRADUATE SCHOOL REPRESENTATION

SOUTHWESTERN STATES



ETHNIC REPRESENTATION IN GRADUATE SCHOOLS

	WHITE	HISPANIC	BLACK	AMERICAN	ASIANN
ARIZONA	1.284	0.194	0.344	0.167	1
CALIFORNIA	1.32	0.226	0.58	0.667	1.204
COLORADO	1.144	0.246	0.359	0.571	1.083
NEW MEXIC	1.556	0.458	0.545	0.181	1.286
TEXAS	1.356	0.319	0.352	1	1.182

SOURCE: CALIFORNIA POSTSECONDARY EDUCATION COMMISSION

Blacks in California have been found to be better represented than Blacks from many other states, and much better represented than Hispanics.

At the graduate school level, American Indians began to show deficits in representation in California. But the magnitude of this problem was nowhere near as great as in Arizona and in New Mexico where American Indians are severely underrepresented in four year institutions and beyond.

Whites and Asians were still overrepresented in California graduate schools. But at this level, the White index surpassed the index for Asians, and Whites were the most represented group.

D. Professional Schools: Indexes of Representation

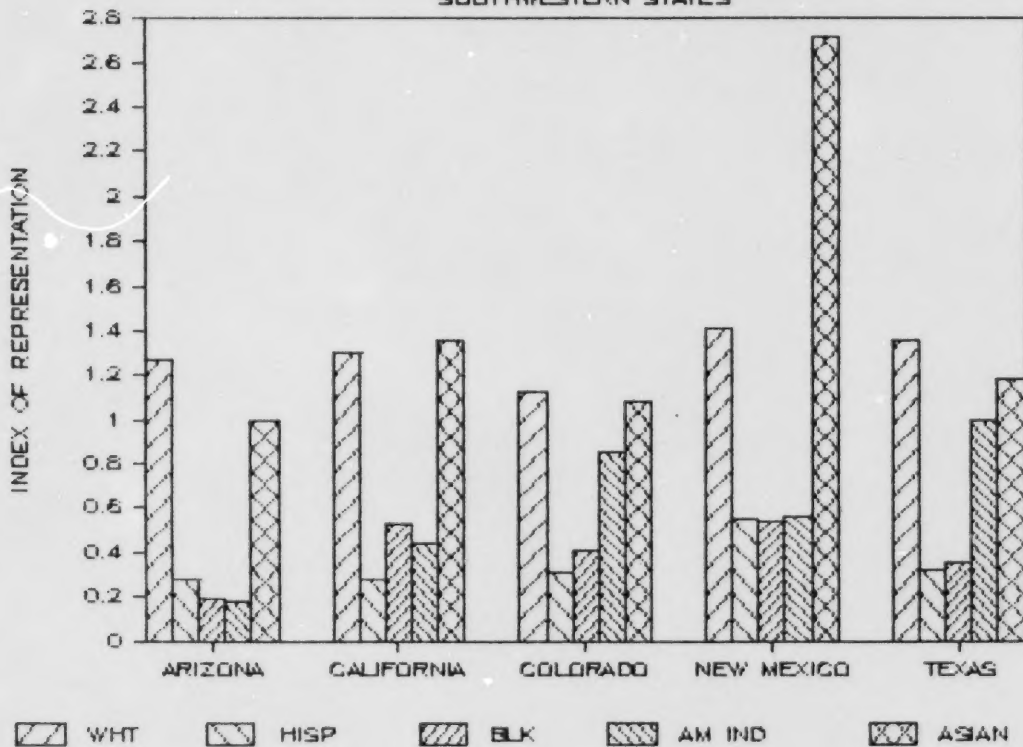
In California professional schools, Hispanics, Blacks, and American Indians are all severely underrepresented. Whites and Asians are both overrepresented. This pattern is a case of the broad-based discrepancies in achievement that are found at all levels of education in California. Whites and Asians are on one side of the achievement gap; Hispanics, Blacks, and American Indians are on the other (See Figure 25).

In 1980, Whites and Asians were overrepresented in the professional schools of every state, except for Asians in Arizona, where they were evenly represented (1.0). American Indians were better represented in Colorado professional schools (0.857) and in the professional schools of New Mexico (0.556) than in California (0.444). American Indians were evenly represented in Texas, but very poorly represented in Arizona.

Figure 25.

PROFESSIONAL SCHOOL REPRESENTATION

SOUTHWESTERN STATES



ETHNIC REPRESENTATION IN PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS

	WHITE	HISPANIC	BLACK	AMERICAN	ASIANN
ARIZONA	1.27	0.282	0.188	0.185	1
CALIFORNI	1.3	0.281	0.531	0.444	1.352
COLORADO	1.129	0.316	0.41	0.857	1.083
NEW MEXIC	1.407	0.547	0.545	0.566	2.714
TEXAS	1.356	0.319	0.352	1	1.182

SOURCE: CALIFORNIA POSTSECONDARY EDUCATION COMMISSION

Blacks in Southwestern states have very poor representation in professional schools. Most of the states have worse representation than California. This includes Texas, where numbers of Blacks are comparable to the numbers in California.

Once again, California has a representation for Hispanics near the bottom of the range. The index for Hispanics in California professional schools was 0.281, lower than any other state in this comparison. Although still poor, representation in Texas is better (0.319), and even better in New Mexico (0.547).

E. Summary

Differential academic achievement by racial/ethnic group is a characteristic of the whole country. In the Southwest, every state has its own patterns of deficiency in minority representation in higher education. Arizona and New Mexico struggle with low representation by American Indians. Representation of Blacks is very poor in Texas. In California, Hispanics are the least represented racial/ethnic group, and they are poorly represented at all levels, even at community colleges.

Low representation by Hispanics in California may be partially explainable by the large numbers of transient Mexican-Americans in the State. New Mexico, by contrast, may have a larger established Hispanic population, which may have led to an index of representation in four year colleges by Hispanics nearly double the same index for California.

There is some evidence for the influence of stability and migration on representation. Participation is much better in

Sacramento than in the rest of the state considered together. Sacramento's Hispanic population tends to be more stable than in many other areas of California. If stability enhances representation, we may be hopeful that participation in postsecondary education may be more even for racial/ethnic groups in the future. There are certain to be immigrants to California, but the Hispanic population that is now new to the state will become established and may be a base for strong participation in college and beyond.

CHAPTER VII
SELECTED EFFORTS
TO INCREASE MINORITY REPRESENTATION

A. Within California

1. Cal-SOAP

Under the auspices of the California Student Aid Commission, Cal-SOAP seeks to improve the representation of minority and disadvantaged students in California's postsecondary institutions. Cal-SOAP (California Student Opportunity and Access Program) is an effort organized by six consortia of high schools and colleges. The consortia focuses on two objectives: increasing student knowledge of the possibilities of going to college and improving the academic preparation of potential college students.

The objectives of Cal-SOAP are met through staff who are also college students. These students act as counselor aids and tutors in local high schools. As counselor aids, staff members work in cooperation with high school counselors to identify potential college students and to assist these students in planning for and applying to college. This includes helping students to identify career interests and complete admissions applications.

Cal-SOAP staff also tutor students. Tutoring programs usually occur after school and are aimed at improving students' academic schools.

Besides these programs, Cal-SOAP sponsors workshops in

applying for financial aid and in study skills and test preparation, including preparation for college admissions tests. There are also visitation programs in which prospective college students visit post-secondary institutions and are introduced to staff who can provide supportive services.

2. MESA

MESA is an outreach project of the University of California, Berkeley. MESA (Mathmatics, Engineering, Science Achievement) seeks to identify students in junior high and high school who show potential to succeed in higher education. MESA students are encouraged to complete college track courses, especially in math, science, and English. MESA efforts are targeted at underrepresented minority groups.

Achievement by MESA students far exceeds the achievement of other college-bound minority students. They are more likely to seek higher degrees and are more likely to plan careers in engineering and the physical sciences.

B. Outside of California

1. San Antonio: Options for Excellence

From June 1981 to June 1985, The College Board sponsored Options for Excellence, a project designed to encourage minority participation in postsecondary education. The project had two components: a talent search for academically promising high school students, and and effort to establish more advanced placement courses in the high schools of San Antonio, Texas. These efforts were sustained with foundation funding.

In the talent search project, all high school juniors in Bexar County, Texas, were given the opportunity to take the Preliminary Scholastic Aptitude Test (PSAT) without charge. This offer was extended for three years, with approximately 12,000 students taking the PSAT each of those years. Through the PSAT results, previously unrecognized talent began to be identified. The talent search also involved staff development workshops for school faculty and workshops for students. Student workshops focused on improving study skills, listening, and writing.

The second component of Options for Excellence was an effort to establish more advance placement courses in Bexar County high schools. Prior to this effort, only one of the forty-nine high schools in the county had a strong advanced placement (AP) program. Following the efforts of the Options for Excellence project, 37 out of the 49 participating high schools had established strong AP programs.

The purpose of trying to establish more AP courses was the belief that the AP coursework would better prepare high school students for college. Through the program, they could also earn college credit, and thus get a head start toward earning a college degree.

In order to give teachers the prerequisite training, Options for Excellence offered \$1500 stipends for teachers to attend summer institutes that would prepare them to teach AP courses. These stipends were awarded on a competitive basis. Through this program, 180 teachers participated in the summer institutes.

Another component of the AP effort was a grant award project

to give schools the funds necessary to start AP courses. The grants ranged from a few hundred to a few thousand dollars per school. Proposals for grant money expressed needs for instructional materials and equipment. Between \$15,000 and \$20,000 was offered to the schools each year through this program. In addition, Options for Excellence also provided fee waivers for students to take AP exams.

The success of Options for Excellence was due, in large part, to the support it received from the San Antonio community. Henry Sisneros, the Mayor of San Antonio, made a series of public service announcements on radio and television explaining the purpose of the project. In English and Spanish, he made students aware of the PSAT testing and encouraged students to take the exam.

Besides the mayor, the county school superintendents gave full support to the project. The project also had the support of the colleges and universities in the San Antonio area.

Throughout the duration of the project, The College Board emphasized that Options for Excellence was a temporary project, and that special efforts, such as the free PSAT examinations, would end when the grant money expired. Schools and colleges were encouraged to look for ways to sustain the efforts that had begun (D. Beshara, personal communication, August 27, 1985).

2. Project EQuality

Project EQuality is another project of the College Board, but its efforts extend nationwide. Project EQuality is a ten year effort, which began in 1980. Its efforts are twofold.

First, the project seeks to encourage educators to do what they can to expand students' access to postsecondary education.

Interest in access is focused primarily on minority students.

The second component of Project Equality is an effort to evaluate and improve the college preparatory curricula in high schools. The responsibility for evaluation is given to teachers and administrators.

CHAPTER VIII

CONCLUSION

This is a report about the achievement gap, the problem differential attainment by ethnic groups. The achievement gap is a problem of the nation and of virtually every state, including California. The correlates of the achievement gap are found in many facets of society including income, occupation, residence, unemployment, and crime.

The aim of this paper is to show that the achievement gap is a problem not only for minorities and the disadvantaged. Increasing proportions of minorities in the populations of California and other states make the stakes high for everyone. Without accelerated movement toward equal representation in achievement, California and other states will find that there are diminishing numbers of capable and informed citizens who can contribute to society.

On many measures of progress toward equal representation among achievers, California shows itself to be one of the best among comparable states. In comparison to the southwestern states, Black Californians have fairly good representation in colleges. But Hispanics in California are severely underrepresented at all levels of postsecondary education, even at community colleges. Achievement by Hispanics is poor even among other states of the southwest.

But there seems to be cause for hope. Numbers of minority students aspiring to higher education are increasing. College

admissions test scores are on the rise for minority groups. There are many organizations dedicated to the cause of eliminating the differences in achievement between racial/ethnic groups. Universities and colleges are seeking ways to contribute to a solution. They are cooperating with schools to seek academically promising minority students. Testing organizations are exploring ways that they can help the disadvantaged. In very many segments there is an increasing awareness that the outcome of the war against the achievement gap will affect all citizens.

The awareness of the problem and actions directed toward its resolution make us hopeful. There are signs of progress and also signs of continued weakness. With many strategies for establishing equity, chances are best for success. With continued success will be continued approximation toward the ideals of freedom and democracy.

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